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285 Mayer's Views in Egypt, with Historical Observations, etc., forty-eight large and beautifully coloured plates, folio, half morocco, 1801



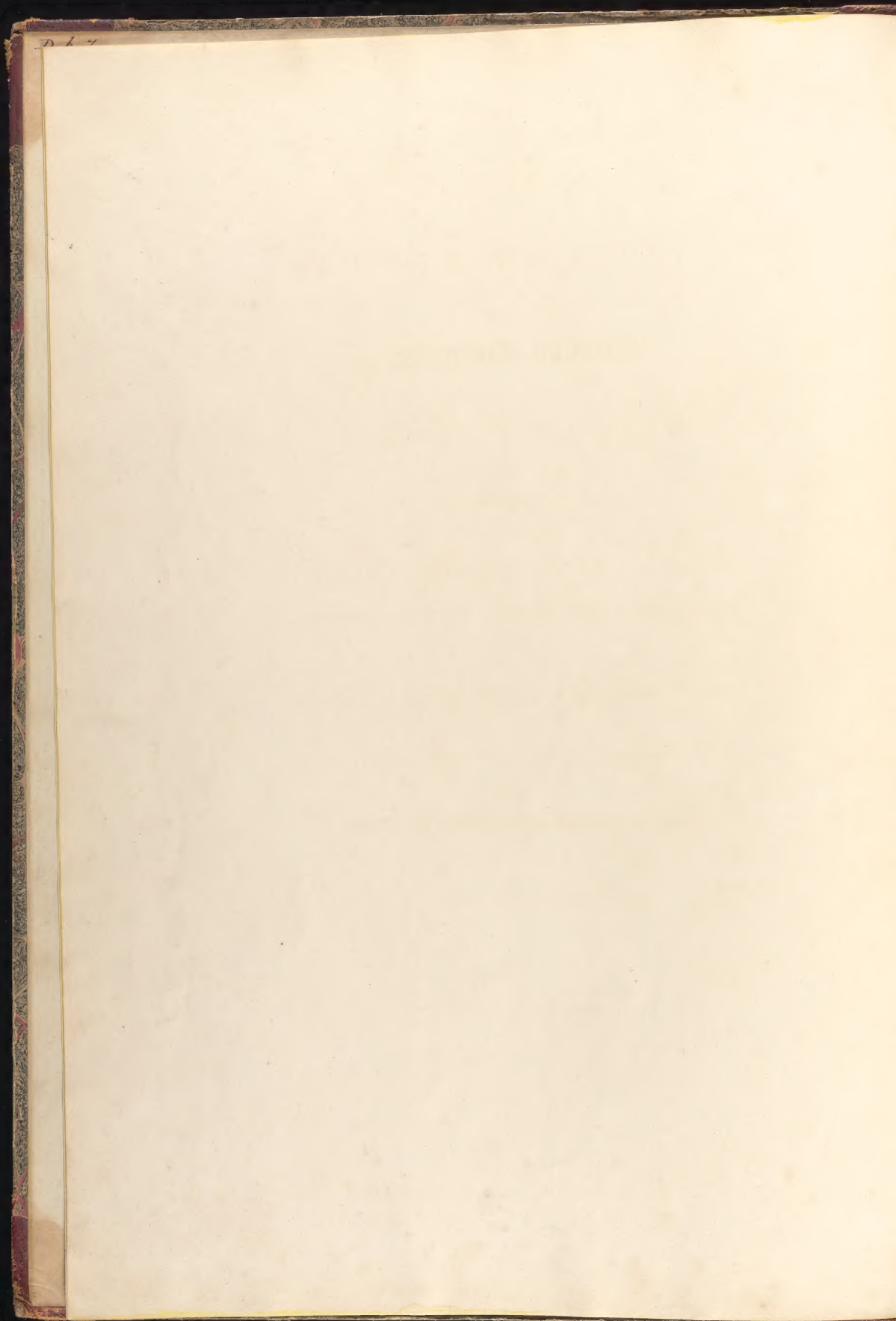
*Henry Curzon Glanville,
Shrewsbury.*



*Albert Julian Pitt Rivers,
Wiltshire.*

48 col. aquatints.

2350.
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VIEWS IN EGYPT,

FROM THE

Original Drawings

IN THE POSSESSION OF

SIR ROBERT AINSLIE,

TAKEN DURING HIS

EMBASSY TO CONSTANTINOPLE

BY

LUIGI MAYER:

Engraved by and under the Direction of Thomas Milton:

WITH

HISTORICAL OBSERVATIONS,

AND

INCIDENTAL ILLUSTRATIONS

OF THE

Manners and Customs of the Natives of that Country.

LONDON:

Printed by THOMAS BENSLEY, Bolt-court, Fleet-street,

For R. BOWYER, Historic Gallery, Pall-mall.

1801.

VIEWS IN EGYPT.

Original Drawings

BY ROBERT ALLEN

ESQ.

OF THE

PROFESSOR OF THE HISTORY OF THE EAST

HISTORICAL OBSERVATIONS

ON THE

ANCIENT AND MODERN HISTORY OF THE EAST

LONDON

Printed by J. B. G. & Co. 10, St. Paul's Church-Yard

1801

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TO

SIR ROBERT AINSLIE,

LATE AMBASSADOUR TO THE SUBLIME PORTE,

AS A GRATEFUL TESTIMONIAL OF THE LIBERALITY, WITH WHICH

HE HAS PERMITTED THE FOLLOWING DRAWINGS,

TAKEN UNDER HIS AUSPICES,

TO BE PRESENTED TO THE PUBLIC,

THIS WORK IS MOST RESPECTFULLY INSCRIBED

BY HIS MOST HUMBLE

AND VERY OBLIGED SERVANTS,

ROBERT BOWYER,

THOMAS MILTON.

HISTORIC GALLERY,
FALL-MALL.

MR. ROBERT FISKE

Lecturer on the History of the United States

He is a learned and able man, and his lectures will be
of great service to the students of the
University. He is a native of New England, and
has spent much of his life in the study of
the history of the United States. He is a
member of the American Historical Association,
and has published several books on the
history of the United States. He is a
man of great energy and ability, and his
lectures will be of great service to the
students of the University.

E G Y P T.

FROM the remotest times, with which we are acquainted, to the present period, no country has excited so much attention as Egypt; for it has had peculiar claims to our notice. Long before Rome existed, and when the inhabitants of Greece were mere savages, the egyptians were a numerous and civilized people, to whom science was no stranger. From them the greeks derived the first rudiments of instruction, and to them all the knowledge of the ancients may be traced back as to it's cradle. Of late, indeed, great analogy has been discovered between the learning of the hindoos and the egyptians; and hence it has been inferred, that the egyptians were the scholars of the hindoos. Which were the masters, however, and which the pupils, is a problem, the solution of which we have neither data nor inclination to attempt; but which may be hoped from the researches of our able countrymen, in a field yet little explored: though there are certainly probabilities, which incline us in favour of Asia. Still, if the egyptians were the scholars of an asiatic people; or, which appears more probable, brought the rudiments of knowledge with them from Asia, when they migrated into the Thebaid, before they were able to occupy the fertile vale beneath; that they were the immediate

cause of enlightening the greeks, and through them the whole western world, is not to be disputed. But our design is only to consider Egypt itself, and give a slight sketch of the country, before we proceed to examine the particular objects, which the drawings were intended to illustrate.

The space it occupies is of no great extent; for, though it's length from north to south may be about five hundred and fifty miles, the greater part of it is extremely narrow, being confined by two ridges of mountains, between which is the bed of the Nile; and the base of the Delta, or that part which borders on the Mediterranean, where it is broadest, does not exceed a hundred and thirty miles. The great fertility of the land, however, of that part of it at least which has been generally deemed the gift of the Nile both by the ancients and moderns, cherished an astonishing population: Indeed the accounts that are transmitted to us of the number of it's cities are incredible; for Herodotus says, that in the reign of Amasis it contained twenty thousand. It is probable, however, that Herodotus did not employ the proper term on the occasion; and the idea of extent we associate with our word city tends but to increase our misconception: while at the same time it is unquestionable, from the stupendous masses of architecture, and gigantic works of art, which at this day lie scattered on it's plains, or from their solidity still brave the efforts of Time, that there was a period, when it's population must have been immense. Assisted by the hand of Industry, the fertilizing stream of the Nile diffused plenty over every spot of ground, to which Art could convey it; while the same Art prevented it's inordinate flow from sweeping all

before it, and diverted the too impetuous torrent into channels, where it might spend it's fury without harm, and become a blessing instead of a curse.

When these great and useful labours were accomplished, when all Egypt was converted into a garden, which afforded the necessities of life in abundance with little toil, the policy of the pharaohs led them to employ the industry of the people in erecting works of less utility, though calculated to excite admiration. Hence the vast palaces of the once famous Thebes; hence the sphinxes, the obelisks, the pyramids, that have existed the wonder of ages past, and will exist the wonder of ages to come. But mutability is the character impressed upon human nature by the hand of Omnipotence. These works were finished, and these days passed away. From a concatenation of moral and physical causes, which we shall not attempt to trace, the face of Egypt has been changed like the features of it's inhabitants. To the egyptian toiling in the excavation of canals to cover his fields with luxuriant harvests labour no doubt was pleasant; to the egyptian thus habituated to industry the erection of a palace for his king, or a temple for his god, was a mean to save him from the oppressive demon of Idleness: but when other generations arose, who had never reaped the fruits of their industry; impelled to labours, in which they could see no utility, at the will of an imperious taskmaster; working from day to day, from year to year, to raise a vast pile for the sole purpose of enclosing a single corpse; labour became disgusting to them, and they naturally sunk into lifeless indolence. Thus prepared for subjugation, conqueror after conqueror invaded their

land, one robber preying upon another, till the lethargy of turkish despotism overspread the whole.

It is worthy of remark, that the ancient inhabitants of Egypt, by whom such works were performed, and from whom Greece received instruction, bore the same crisped and curled hair, which now distinguishes the negro, whom they likewise resembled in feature and complexion. These were the men, whose learning, laws, and government, had so much to excite our admiration, before any records that have reached us existed, or at least any intelligible to us; for their writings have long ago perished, their hieroglyphics we do not understand, and the oldest historians of Greece were then unborn. How is it then, that the present race of negroes, dwelling on the same continent, are deemed by too many europeans as little superiour to the brutes, when we have such proofs of the ability and cultivation of their elder brethren? Unfortunately the present inhabitants, a mixed breed descended from the various ravagers of the country, in whom little or none of the original blood remains, have been vulgarly considered as the legitimate descendants of the egyptians of old; and thus, from a want of proper discrimination, the negro has been robbed of the fame so justly his due.

It is to moral causes, no doubt, we are to ascribe the difference perceived in the state both of the inhabitants and of the country. There is no adequate reason to presume a physical defect of capacity even in the present mixed people of Egypt, and the natural circumstances of the country itself have undergone no alteration, that can tend to diminish it's ancient advantages. The soil, an-

nually renovated by the same Nile, has evidently lost nothing of it's former richness; as the crops it now produces with little care sufficiently prove: and the same means of fertility remain in full vigour, for enterprising Genius to employ, whenever it may be roused to exertion.

The climate, too, is still the same, is still as favourable to man, as when the land swarmed with inhabitants. During the greater part of the year it is extremely hot, for the soil, heated by a fervid sun, is not refreshed by the alternation of grateful showers, and cooling dews: though after the rains in Ethiopia have begun to swell the Nile, more aqueous vapour arises from it during the day, than the air can hold in solution during the absence of the sun, and this falls in dew by night. As natural causes act with more uniformity here, than in our variable climates, the first appearance of this dew is commonly observed on the night of the festival of St. Michael, which in the coptic calendar is the 17th of june, and at the same period the plague ceases to extend it's ravages; so that these two circumstances have been associated together in the minds of the people, and ascribed to the miraculous interposition of the archangel.

It was formerly imagined, that the terrible scourge of the east, to which so many fall annually a sacrifice, arose spontaneously in Egypt: but many modern writers are of opinion, that this is by no means the case; and Sonnini asserts, that the country had been completely free from the plague for twelve years, when he was there, though a free communication had been kept up with other places where it prevailed. This circumstance, indeed, may

be deemed an argument rather against Sonnini's hypothesis, than in favour of it; while it has a greater tendency to prove, perhaps, that the climate is not unfavourable to health; and this the constant disappearance of the contagion at midsummer, after which, it is said, no one has ever been known to die of the disorder, strongly confirms.

The once ready admission of conjectures, if they had the appearance of being founded on fact, to account for natural phenomena, the causes of which were not investigated, may explain the reason of this serious charge brought against a country, that by no means deserved the imputation. With the true cause of the plague we are unacquainted: but it was found to occur in Egypt; it was a fact, that the land was covered with water, which became stagnant, evaporated, and left it's heterogeneous sediment on the moist surface, to be dried up by the heat of the Sun; it was supposed, that noisome miasmata, of sufficient virulence to engender the plague, must be exhaled by this putrefying sediment; and accordingly to this the disease was attributed, so that Egypt was supposed to be the place of it's birth. But in this there is far too much of gratuitous supposition. The evaporation is carried on too quickly, to leave much matter for putrefaction; and the pure dry air of the climate, and the salubrious northern gales, which blow with considerable steadiness and force for the greater part of the year, permit no noxious vapour, that has once arisen, to descend again, or hover over the land, and infect the atmosphere. From the numbers of fishes left by the retiring waters, and the multitudes of frogs, that are annually produced, the generation of a vast

load of putrid animal matter might be apprehended: but happily this is prevented by the numerous flocks of birds, which assemble round the contracting waters, and greedily devour the frogs and fishes, so that few are left behind. Who sees not here the wisdom of Providence, which, acting through the means of second causes, has averted an impending evil, and given multitudes of living creatures to find the support of their existence in what would otherwise probably have been fatal to man? From this view, which agrees with the fact of the salubrity of the climate, the sediment of the Nile seems capable of little injury to health; though, even were it such a putrid mass, as men at a distance in their closets have supposed, there is no reason to imagine, that it would be capable of generating the plague.

It is not to be expected, that in this country man should be exempt from diseases, to which he is more or less a prey in every part of the globe; but it would certainly be unjust, to brand it with the epithet of unhealthy; and Sonnini appeals confidently to experience, to attest the purity and salubrity of it's air, which is equally asserted by Mr. Antes, who resided in the country twelve years. Possibly the dryness of it's atmosphere, of which striking instances occur in the sandy parts, and the regularity of it's seasons, counteract the sickening effects of sloth, and of the stagnant waters of the Nile. The diseases, that prevail here to a degree unknown perhaps in any other country, are the elephantiasis, or leprosy of the arabs, as it has been called, and inflammations of the eyes. These affections of the eyes are particularly frequent and severe, often occasioning the loss of one or both of these or-

gans, and it is probable are to be ascribed chiefly, if not solely, to the acrimonious particles, wafted by the winds from the sandy deserts, and from a soil strongly impregnated with alkaline salts.

We cannot consider the soil of Egypt, and it's extraordinary fruitfulness, without our attention being turned immediately to

THE NILE,

the inexhaustible source of it's fertility. This celebrated river rises in the village of Geesh, in the country of Gojam, in the south of Abyssinia, in the latitude of $10^{\circ} 59' 25''$ north, and longitude $36^{\circ} 55' 30''$ east of the meridian of Greenwich. At the fountain head it is upwards of two miles above the level of the sea; and hence it flows through Abyssinia, Sennaar, and Nubia, it's magnitude increased by various tributary streams, and it's descent accelerated at different places by cataracts, from one of which the water rushes down at once about two hundred and eighty feet, till it reaches the Thebaid, and it's course is confined to a narrow valley, between two mountainous ridges, the sides of which once afforded habitations to the troglodytes, that first peopled the country. In the neighbourhood of the ancient Syene, now Assouan, at the southern extremity of upper Egypt, is the last cataract; if that may be so called, which in North America would receive the appropriate name of rapids; from which to the Mediterranean the Nile is navigable by vessels of considerable size. The canjas, or boats employed in the commerce of the river, are well adapted to the peculiar circumstances of it, combining in them speed, safety, and convenience.

The celebrated Mourad bey has procured some ships to be built and equipped in the european fashion, and purchased a few others, in which he has incurred considerable expense to little purpose. The largest of them mounts twenty-four guns; and they are well manned, chiefly with greeks from the Archipelago. He has about six of these vessels, lying at anchor before Geeza the greater part of the year, as they can be navigated only while the river is at a considerable height. Should either of the european powers maintain a footing in this country, perhaps the usual shallowness of the Nile will prove no greater obstacle to the establishment of any marine force that may be of utility on it, than that of the American lakes did in the last war.

For the transport of commodities, or the purposes of war, however, the Nile is of little importance, compared with it's influence on the cultivation of the country. What but for it would be a barren desert, is rendered by it's waters one of the most productive spots on the Earth. This is effected by it's annual inundation, to which the people anxiously look, as the dispenser of plenty or of famine. At the heliacal rising of the dog-star, when the rainy season commences within the tropics, all the rivers are swelled by the torrents of water, that fall from the clouds, and seek their passage to the sea through the channel of the Nile, into which they flow. Hence it's stream, which from the continuance of drought had sunk low, begins to rise in consequence of this addition. It's increase, however, is not so considerable, as to be an object of public notice, till about the end of june, when it's degree is proclaimed through the streets of Cairo by a person appointed for the

purpose. As soon as it has risen to the height of sixteen cubits, this is announced by the cry of *wafaa ullah*, 'God has given us abundance:' if it rise to twenty, which is sufficient to render the whole of the land fit for cultivation, the cry is *men jibbel alla jibbel*, 'from mountain to mountain;' implying, that the water suffices to inundate the country up to the foot of the mountains on either side.

To some of our readers, perhaps, this may require explanation. The vale of lower Egypt is nearly flat, but the banks of the Nile are it's highest parts, from which it slopes gently toward the mountains. The whole of this land, parched with almost perpetual drought at other seasons, requires to be deluged by the annual inundation of the river, the turbid waters of which furnish it at the same time with manure, in the sediment it deposits, and the recrements of the preceding crop, which it renders subservient to the purpose of promoting vegetation by the putrefactive process it induces in them. The height of the banks of the Nile is such, as to prevent the water from having access to the land behind them, unless on extraordinary occasions; such indeed as would threaten a general famine. Accordingly canals were formed by the care of the ancient inhabitants, to convey the water over the whole face of the country, when it had risen to a proper height; and others to carry it off, when too abundant, into the lakes in the deserts of Libya. The mouths of these canals were closed by mounds, which were broken down, when the water had attained the requisite degree of increase. If the inundation were too copious, the superfluous water was diverted to the lakes, and thus

prevented from doing injury; if it were precisely sufficient, to cover the whole of the land, the banks of the river excepted, an abundant harvest was produced, with very little labour; and if the lower grounds alone were covered by the natural influx of the water, the aid of mechanics was called in, when the inundation was at it's height, to extend the influence of the stream by means of engines, and thus dispense fertility to fields, that indolence and ignorance would have left unproductive. Now, that it was extremely desirable, to know the proper times for opening the canals, and the extent to which the water would overflow the plains, that the business might be conducted most to the advantage of the community, was presently obvious. For this the Nilometer was invented. It required much less science, than the ancient Egyptians possessed, to know, that a graduated column, fixed in the bed of the Nile, would indicate with certainty the limits, to which the inundation extended; and probably they employed one differing very little from that which is at present used by the government at Cairo, for an accurate delineation of which, with an internal and an external view of the building that contains it, we refer our readers to the plates annexed, and which we shall proceed to describe, in the words of Mr. Bruce, who appears to have examined it with care, and given an account of it with accuracy. Though this is not to be considered as the sole instrument throughout the course of the Nile for measuring it's rise, since we are informed by Mr. Langles, that there are no less than fifteen nilometers between the island of Elephantina and the mouth of the river.

THE NILOMETER.

‘ON the point of the island Rhoda, between Geeza and Cairo, near the middle of the river, but nearer to Geeza, is a round tower, and in that an apartment, in the middle of which is a very neat well, or cistern, lined with marble, to which the Nile has free access, through a large opening like an embrasure, the bottom of the well being on the same level with the bottom of the river. In the middle of this well rises a thin column, as far as I can remember, of eight faces of blue and white marble, to the foot of which if you are permitted to descend, you are then on the same plane with the foot of the column and bottom of the river. This pillar is divided into twenty peeks, called *draa el belledy*, of twenty-two inches each. The two lowermost peeks are not divided at all, but are left absolutely without mark, to stand for the quantity of sludge the water deposits there, and which occupies the place of water. Two peeks are then divided on the right hand into twenty-four digits each; then, on the left, four peeks are divided each into twenty-four digits; then, on the right, four; and, on the left, another four: again, four on the right, which complete the number of eighteen peeks from the first division marked on the pillar, each of twenty-two inches. The whole, marked and unmarked, amounts to thirty-six feet eight inches english.’

When this country was conquered by the turks, a tribute was imposed upon it. All it's wealth, however, consisting in its pro-



VIEW OF THE NILOMETER.

duce, it would be vain to require this tribute, when the deficiency of the inundation keeps the land in a state of barrenness. Accordingly the *Mikeas*, or Nilometer, is of the highest importance, not to the people only, but to the grand signior, as it indicates the extent of the impost, which the circumstances of the country will allow him to exact. If the land rendered fit for cultivation by the overflowing of the Nile will be too little, or barely sufficient, to keep the people from starving, the sovereign must of necessity forego his tribute. When the inundation reaches to a certain extent, the produce will allow the grand signior to receive a certain portion: and this, which is indicated by the rise of the water to the height of sixteen peeks at the *Mikeas*, is announced to the people by the cry of *wafaa ullah*; by which they are given to understand, that the *meery*, or tribute, will be demanded. In this case, however, it is necessary, to measure the land, in order to ascertain how much the water has overflowed, for which the tenant is to pay the whole of the tax; how much has been watered by means of machines, for which he pays only half, the other half being allowed as a compensation for the expense of the additional labour required; and how much has been incapable of receiving benefit, left uncultivated, and therefore remains exempt from taxation. If the water should rise to the height of twenty peeks, the cry of *men jibbel alla jibbel* proclaims, that the whole of the land will be fertilized, and become liable to the tribute.

In the midst of this expanse of water, covering the whole of the low lands, the banks of the Nile appear, beautifully studded with villages, to which the palm-trees around them are no incon-

siderable ornament. As soon as the river retires from the fields, they are sown with all sorts of grain; and as the heat and moisture speedily occasion the seed to germinate, the face of the country quickly assumes the appearance of a delightful green meadow, which in a short time is variegated with the hues of flowering plants and ripening corn.

CANALS.

THE canals for conveying the water of the Nile have already been mentioned: that at Cairo is said by arabian writers to be paved with marble, though at present nothing is discoverable at the bottom but mud. During part of the year indeed it is a mere dunghill, a receptacle of filth in general: but against the rise of the Nile it is cleaned, and converted into a street, which is as much crowded as any in the city, and where the jugglers, tumblers, and dancing girls, exhibit their feats in public. When the Nile flows into it, boats and barges richly decorated float on it, and it still wears the face of festivity, though on a different element.

As soon as the water has risen to the proper height, the mound of this grand canal, or calisch, is opened with great ceremony; as might be expected in the metropolis on an occasion of such real importance to the country. The bashaw and his beys, for whom a tent is pitched by the side of the canal, repair to the place with a grand retinue on horseback. Riding up to the mound, which is thrown up at the mouth of the canal when the water of the



FIRST AND SECOND PYRAMID OF GIZAH, ANCIENT MEMPHIS.

river begins to rise, the bashaw strikes it with his lance, and then retires to the tent. The people immediately fall to work on the mound, and break it down; the bashaw throws a few small pieces of coin into the water; nuts, melons, and other fruits, are thrown in by people in a boat ready for the occasion; rockets are let off; and the day is concluded amid the most licentious expressions of revelry.

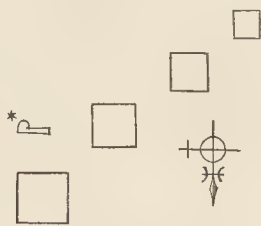
Having thus entered on the antiquities of Egypt, for of these the canals must be considered as the first in time, as well as in utility, we are naturally attracted to those, that most eminently obtrude themselves on our imagination,

THE PYRAMIDS.

THESE structures appear in considerable number, varying in size, in materials, and in architecture, between Cairo and Meduun: but those nearest Cairo, called the pyramids of Geeza, are the most worthy of notice; four of which, though different in magnitude from each other, are particularly distinguished from the rest by their bulk. The faces of each of these are placed fronting the four cardinal points; and they are constructed so that a line, drawn from north-east to south-west, would pass through the base of each. The least of the four is to the south-west, and the others increase in size; each of the persons, by whom they were built, resolving no doubt to eclipse his predecessor, till the bulk and expense of the last precluded any attempt to outvie it; if the circumstances of the times did not become less favourable to the

waste of so much toil, for a purpose of so little advantage even to the single mortal, for whom it was intended.

It has been conjectured, indeed, that the pyramids were temples, or altars, dedicated to the Sun. But that an edifice nearly solid, and to the narrow chamber of which all access was carefully excluded, should have been intended for a temple, is palpably absurd: and what sacrifices could be offered on a structure of such height, terminating in a point, and the sides of which were rendered smooth, as if to frustrate all attempts to ascend it? The writer of the article on this subject in the *Encyclopædia Britannica*, however, considers this supposition as well founded, and as supported by the accounts we have from the Asiatic Society, that the hindoos erected large statues of their gods Seeva and Mehedeo, all of a conical or pyramidal figure. But were the pyramids the statues of an egyptian god, it is scarcely probable, that they should be confined to the extent of country between Meduun and Cairo, be found there in such numbers, and be repeated in such a manner as the four we have mentioned, the disposition of which will appear from Mr. Reveley's sketch annexed.



* Colossal Sphinx.

The etymology of the appellation pyramid, which Mr. Silvester de Sacy has lately given in the *Magazin encyclopédique*,

may perhaps be adduced as countenancing the above conjecture: for he derives it with much plausibility from an egyptian root, signifying something sacred, or set apart from men's use. But, not to mention the little stress that can be laid on etymologies, often fanciful, and at best dubious, this derivation is as suitable to a tomb as to a temple, for nothing was more sacred to the ancient egyptians than the repositories of the dead.

An ingenious gentleman of Germany, Mr. Witte, who never saw them by the by, has endeavoured to maintain the hypothesis of their being the work of nature, not of art: and he goes so far as to ascribe the same origin to the ruins of Persepolis, Balbec, and Palmyra, the palaces of the incas in Peru, the temple of Jupiter at Girgenti, in Sicily, and even to Stonehenge on Salisbury plain. Mr. Bryant, too, imagines, that the three largest at least are not artificial structures of stone and mortar, but solid rocks, cut into a pyramidal shape, and afterward cased with stone. The opinion of Mr. Bruce approaches this; and it appears highly probable, that as much of the stratum of rock, on which they are raised, as could be made subservient to the purpose, was employed in the lower part of the structure. Yet it seems unquestionable, that all above the great gallery and sepulchral chamber at least must have been the work of art; for, as Mr. Reveley observes, and this is conformable to the testimony of others, the great gallery, chamber, and sarcophagus, are of granite; which could not have been brought in through the passage leading to them from the side of the pyramid; and cannot be in it's natural situation, in the centre of such a mass of soft freestone.

On approaching the pyramids from Geeza, the first that offers itself is the largest, standing on a hill of rock, about a hundred feet higher than the plain below. Its base is buried in the sand, that now rises in a slope on the north side within two courses of the entrance, which was formerly midway between the base and the summit. This, as well as the others, is built of a stone very little harder than chalk, whitish when scraped, but become by exposure to the air of a yellowish brown hue, being the same with the rock on which they stand. It was originally cased with a different stone, as appears from the concurrent testimony of ancient authors, and from this circumstance, that the courses of stone, which give the appearance of steps externally, are neither uniform in size, as they vary from the height of near five feet to little more than two, nor diminishing with regularity, one or other of which no doubt would have been the case, had it not been intended, that they should be concealed. A considerable portion of the casing of the second pyramid still remains at the top, and by the holes that are visible in many places where it is removed, it has evidently been destroyed by the hand of man. Many authors say, this casing is of granite: but it is of a whitish tint very unlike granite either red or gray; and the summit, which is decayed by time, for no man can climb up the ashlar facing, is not rounding off, as granite would decay, but stands up in points. All the other pyramids are stripped of their facing entirely.

The great pyramid wants about eight feet of its height at the top, many stones having been taken away, or thrown down by people out of wantonness. Dr. Pococke says, that the upper



TOP OF THE FIRST PYRAMID OF GIZAH.



PASSAGE FROM THE SECOND TO THE THIRD GALLERY IN THE GREAT PYRAMID

course consisted of nine stones when he saw it, and that two more were wanting, to complete the course. Mr. Mayer found only seven; so that two had been thrown down since Dr. Pococke's time. For a view of the top, as it appeared when Mr. Mayer was there, see the plate, in which every stone is faithfully represented.

By whom, or at what period, this pyramid was opened, is not certainly known. An arabian author, Ibn Abd Alhokm, discoursing of the wonders of Egypt, relates, that Al Mamoun, the khalif of Bagdad, caused it to be opened about ten centuries ago: and that there was found in it, toward the top, a chamber, with a hollow stone, in which was a statue like a man, and within it a man, upon whom was a breastplate of gold, set with jewels; on his breastplate lay a sword of inestimable price, at his head was a carbuncle of the bigness of an egg, shining like the light of the day, and upon him were characters written with a pen, which no man understood. But by whomever it was opened, or whatever was then found in it, nothing now remains, except an empty sepulchre. To arrive at this you first descend a sloping passage, or gallery, seventy-nine feet long, four feet high, and three feet four inches and a half wide. At the end of this is an irregular space, eight feet and a half wide, and about ten feet and a half high, formed by breaking a way through to the second passage, which runs sloping upward a hundred and two feet. This is three feet two inches wide, and four feet three inches high. From it is an opening to a well, fifteen inches wide, and three feet four inches in height. The third or great gallery, which terminates in a kind of very sharp arch, formed by each course of stone projecting a little

beyond that which is beneath it, continues the ascent a hundred and twenty-eight feet farther. This is six feet nine inches wide, and thirty-eight feet six inches high, measured at right angles. On each side is a bench, near thirteen inches high, and the same in width. From the end of this gallery a horizontal passage leads to the principal chamber, the door-way of which is three feet nine inches high, and three feet two inches wide. The chamber itself is thirty-five feet long, twenty-two feet five inches wide, and twenty-five feet and a half high. It contains the sarcophagus, which is seven feet six inches in length externally, three feet six inches wide, three feet nine inches high, and six inches thick. From the landing-place at the end of the second passage a horizontal gallery leads to another chamber below the former. This chamber, the roof of which is not flat, but angular, is eighteen feet two inches long, twelve feet nine inches wide, and the same in height. The passage to it is a hundred and twenty-one feet seven inches long, three feet four inches and a half wide, and three feet nine inches high. These measures were taken by Mr. Jean Baptiste Record, of Cairo, in september, 1784, in french feet, which are here reduced to english.

The dimensions of the pyramid itself have been variously recorded by different authors. The late captain Riou gave to Mr. Reveley the following measures, taken by his father, Stephen Riou, an engineer of undoubted abilities, in the year 1754 or 1755. Length of the base seven hundred and fifty-nine feet, perpendicular height four hundred and forty-one. Mr. Dalton assigns twelve feet more to the base, and two feet more to the perpendi-



CLAUDE L. R. AND SARCOPLAGUS IN THE GREAT PYRAMID OF GIZAH.

cular. If, however, there be two hundred and seven or eight steps, which is pretty clearly ascertained, and these steps vary, as Dr. Pococke asserts, from two feet and a half to four feet in height, it seems scarcely possible, that the pyramid should have no greater altitude than these gentlemen assign it. Mr. Record makes the measure of the base on the north side six hundred and seventy-eight feet six inches: the hill beneath the entrance fifty-five feet six inches, and from the top of the hill to the summit of the pyramid five hundred and ninety-three feet six inches, so that the total height is six hundred and forty-nine feet. If Mr. Record intended this for the perpendicular height, the angle at the summit of the pyramid must be very acute, which is by no means the case: it may be presumed, therefore, that his measurement was that of the slant height, taken mechanically, in which case it would probably come near the truth.

On this subject we should have been less full, had we not deemed it of some importance to settle a point, in which travellers of very great reputation have differed considerably, and on which an accurate idea of the figure of the pyramid depends. We cannot avoid placing much confidence in the measurements of Mr. Riou, and Mr. Dalton; which are corroborated by Mr. Giobert, a french engineer, who makes the height of the pyramid four hundred and forty-eight feet: and these come pretty near to Mr. Mayer's, on whose precision we can rely. From the minutes of this gentleman it appears, that the face of the pyramid is an isosceles triangle, the base of which measures seven hundred and twenty-eight feet, and each of the sides six hundred and eighty-

three; that the angle at the summit is of sixty-six degrees, and the perpendicular altitude of the pyramid four hundred and forty-five feet; and that it consists of two hundred and seven courses of hewn stone, the largest of which is near five feet in height, and the smallest upward of two.

Though the pyramids most forcibly strike the eye, and command the attention, yet they are not the sole objects here, that deserve the notice of the inquisitive and enlightened traveller. In their neighbourhood were spacious temples, the ruins of one of which are still easy to be traced before the eastern front of the second pyramid, and of another before that of the third. Various sepulchral chambers, too, have been cut in different parts of the rock, and highly ornamented in basso relievo, an idea of which may be formed from the views we have given. Beside these, about six hundred paces to the east of the second pyramid, is a monument remarkable for it's singularity,

THE COLOSSAL SPHINX.

THIS huge statue was sculptured out of the solid rock: it's body, about a hundred feet in length, is now buried in the sand, above which the head rises at present twenty-seven feet. Though the nose and upper lip have been destroyed by the arabs, the head is strongly marked with the characteristics of the negro form. The ears are remarkably large, the upper edge of them being on a line with the middle of the forehead. The head is covered with a hood, bound on above the eyebrows, spreading out very wide on



HEAD OF THE COLOSSAL STUEN.

each side of the face, and ribbed all over. There are several horizontal veins of softer strata in the rock, which have mouldered away, and give it a singular appearance behind. The neck is so decayed, that it's original form is entirely lost.

That this chimerical figure, having the head of a woman, the paws of a lion, and the body of a dog, should have been designed as a type of some important occurrence, is highly probable: and that it was emblematical of the rising of the Nile, which took place in the months of july and august, when the Sun passes through the signs of Leo and Virgo, is by no means a far-fetched conjecture. If this be the true import of a representation common in Egypt, though of much smaller dimensions than that we are now considering; and it be also a fact, that the sphinx is met with as a sacred or mystical figure in Hindostan, which has been reported; this would be a strong argument to prove, that in ancient times a migration from Egypt to Hindostan took place, instead of the hindoos having peopled Egypt.

But whatever the sphinx may have been intended to typify, the situation of this colossal statue with respect to the second pyramid and it's temple pretty clearly indicates it's connexion with them. Pliny informs us, that in his time there was a subterraneous communication between the body of the sphinx and one of the pyramids. At present there is a hole on the summit of the head about five feet deep; and how much farther it may extend is unknown, as from that depth it is choked up with sand. We have little reason to question therefore, that this sphinx was once connected with the temple, before which it stood, by a secret pas-

sage, through which the priest ascended to it's head, whence he issued oracular responses to the multitude below.

The date of these astonishing monuments appears to baffle all conjecture. They are mentioned as works of antiquity by the most ancient of the heathen historians: from the figure of the vaulted roof of the gallery in the great pyramid, we may presume they were built before the art of constructing a circular arch was known; and as they are totally destitute of hieroglyphics, which abound on other remains of this country, it is most probable they were erected before these sacred characters were invented, the use of which was forgotten at a very remote period.

THE CATACOMBS.

WE have already mentioned the subterraneous repositories of the dead, which are numerous in the neighbourhood of the two larger pyramids, and of great antiquity no doubt, though from the sculptures they exhibit we must naturally infer the work of times much less rude. Some of them are executed in a style of excellence superiour to the performances of a similar kind in the sepulchral grottoes of Upper Egypt. It is not improbable, therefore, that these were made at the time when Memphis, which stood but a few miles south of the pyramids, was the capital of this kingdom.

No part of Egypt appears to have been explored with any degree of diligence, in which catacombs have not been found, though differing much in their form and workmanship. Some



ENTRANCE TO A SEPULCHRAL CHAMBER NEAR THE SINK.





SEPTENTRIONAL CHAMBER, NEAR THE PYRAMIDS AT GIZA

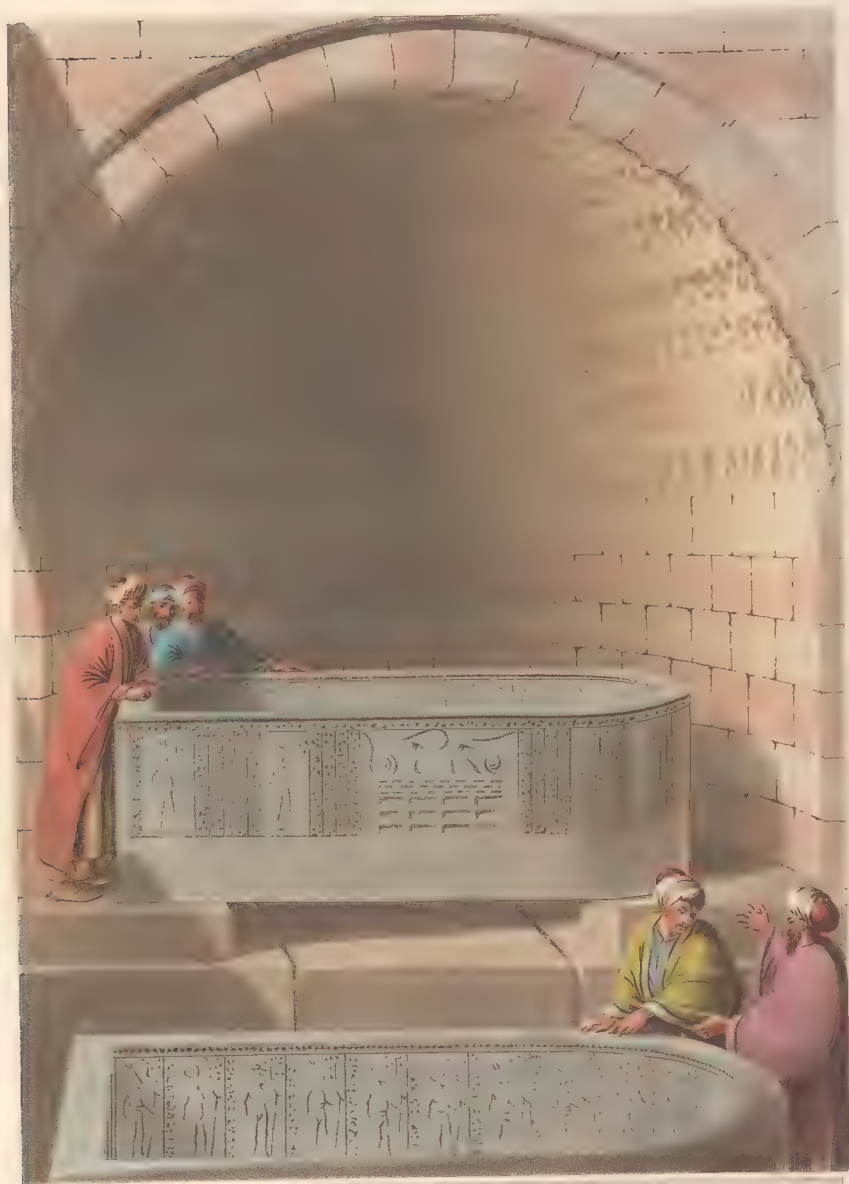
of them are simply square cavities hewn out of the rock; others are chambers, with one or more rows of niches in their sides to receive the bodies of the dead; and frequently there are several of these chambers, communicating with each other. The roofs of some are flat, of others vaulted, and some rise in domes over circular areas. The walls of some are perfectly plain; those of others are covered with insculptured hieroglyphics, adorned with bass reliefs, or embellished with a profusion of painting and gilding. Occasionally we meet with statues in them, as large as life, in sitting postures, with hieroglyphics upon scrolls resting in their laps, or upon the adjacent walls; probably the epitaphs of the persons represented by the statues, and containing a brief chronicle of their lives.

Neither were these places of sepulture confined to the reception of human bodies. The ibis was embalmed with religious care, enclosed in an earthen urn, and then deposited in a subterranean vault. There are galleries of this kind forty or fifty feet beneath the surface of the ground, in the sides of which are several chambers filled with earthen vessels, each containing an embalmed ibis enveloped with linen. Other animals held in veneration by the Egyptians were embalmed and inhumed in a similar manner.

In some of these subterranean grottoes, as well as in the pyramids, sarcophagi are found; and there is a very curious one at Cairo made of basalt, a delineation of which is here given, from the hieroglyphics on it evidently of ancient Egyptian workmanship, yet ornamented with volutes, which have been considered

as of greek invention. This now serves as the basin of a fountain, called the Lover's, it being a popular persuasion firmly credited, that it's water possesses the virtue of extinguishing love. Neither must we omit to mention the stone coffins, in which mummies have been enclosed; sometimes with a human figure sculptured on the lid, inclining to one side, in the posture in which a person usually sleeps.

The catacombs of Alexandria, of which we have given a representation, are on the south of the old port, their present entrance being a small irregular hole, a few paces from the edge of a basin, that communicates with it. This hole is so narrow, that you are obliged to creep in feet foremost. Having passed it, you find yourself in a chamber of a moderate size, but so filled with earth, that a man can barely stand upright in it. Three sides of this chamber have each another cut out of it only eight feet square, and in three of the sides of each of these are square recesses, the fronts of which are ornamented with a kind of tuscan pilasters, supporting a segment of an arch. From the first chamber you pass into various others. One is a parallelogram, about fifteen feet wide, the cieling of which is a very flat segment of an arch; and at the farther end of it are two tuscan pilasters, supporting an architrave, cornice, and pediment, forming a large door, on each side of which is a small door ornamented in the same manner, only without the pediment. These three doors lead into a circular chamber of the same width, it's roof a very flat dome resting on an architrave; and from this chamber you enter three smaller square chambers, with three recesses in each, exactly as



AN ANCIENT SARCOPHAGUS OF BASALTES, CALLED THE LOVERS FOUNTAIN







INTERIOR VIEW OF THE UN'ACADEMY AT ALEXANDRIA.

in the first chamber. All these chambers are cut out of the solid rock, very neatly worked, and stuccoed over. Some of them had square openings in the roof, to admit light, but these are now stopped up. They are all extremely dry, and similar in style; but how far they extend it is impossible to say, they are now so filled, and the original entrance to them is equally unknown.

If we may judge of the antiquity of these from their architectural ornaments, at least such of them as we have been able to explore may be referred to the period when the arts had passed their meridian. Over the great door entering into the circular chamber above mentioned for instance, the horizontal cornice is adorned with dentils only, without modillions, while the inclined cornice of the pediment has modillions without dentils. Now of this no instance occurs in the works of the ancients, while the arts were in perfection; but we cannot be surprised at finding it as they began to decline, when all sorts of absurdities took place, and the neglect of the ancient simplicity brought on that confusion, which terminated in their ruin.

Thus we find the grave of the grecian art in the same country, in which we find it's cradle. For, notwithstanding the ingenious fancies, to which some have had recourse for ascribing the invention of the different orders to the greeks, it is scarce to be doubted, that Greece borrowed it's architecture from the country whence it was in a great measure peopled. In purity of taste, it is true, the greek went far beyond his african predecessor; but the models of his temples, the principal parts of his edifices, the rudiments of all his orders, and the ornaments with which he deco-

rated them, are to be found in Egypt: he only carried them to a degree of perfection, which they could never have reached in their native clime.

O B E L I S K S.

AMONG the antiquities of Egypt coeval with the use of hieroglyphics the obelisk is remarkable. These fingers of the Sun, as they were called by the Egyptian priests, were designed both for ornament and utility. They were gnomons of colossal sundials, cut on the pavement on which they stood, whence they derived their appellation. Placed before their temples as ornamental, their faces were covered with hieroglyphics, recording probably astronomical observations and historical events, and inculcating moral doctrines. Mr. Bruce indeed sees in these, as well as in other hieroglyphics, nothing but almanacs; differing from the wooden calendars, or clogs, which our rustics copied from their northern ancestors, only in being more copious; as they contained much of true astronomical science, with much of those astrological absurdities, from which some of our own almanacs, even in the present day, are not free. That such may have been the subject of many hieroglyphical inscriptions, among a people by whom astronomy was much studied, and to whom it was of importance to ascertain particular periods of the year, is probably true: but we can scarcely suppose them to have been confined to this, when we consider their multiplicity on the walls of temples, on obelisks, on the pedestals and supports of statues, and in the repositories



THE OBELISKS AT ALEXANDRIA, CALLED CLEOPATRAS NEEDLES



AN ANCIENT OSAGE CAMP AT NIAGARA, FORMERLY CALLED OLD.

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of the dead. Surely it could never be intended, that the silence of these should be disturbed, to know when the moon would be at full, or even when the Dog-star would emerge from the rays of the Sun. One supposition made by Mr. Bruce himself is sufficient, to controvert this hypothesis. Moses, he observes, was directed to write the law in alphabetical characters, and not in hieroglyphics: but if these were appropriate to astronomical observations alone, and used for no other purpose, it was absurd to prohibit his employing them to record the law.

However general or particular their purport, it is obvious, that many of them were intended to endure to remotest posterity. They were deeply cut on the hardest stone, as if to brave the hand of Time. But though they still remain conspicuous, and many perhaps will not be effaced as long as the world shall last, their meaning has already been forgotten ages ago; while the classical writings of Greece and Rome, consigned to the frailest materials, bid fair for an immortality, to which they in vain aspired.

The obelisk near Alexandria, called Cleopatra's needle, is a block of granite, not quite six feet in diameter at it's base, and near seventy feet high originally, but it's pedestal, and part of it's base, are buried in the sand. See the plate. The sides facing the north-west and south-west are best preserved, the hieroglyphics on the other two sides being greatly defaced, especially toward the lower part, large scales falling from the stone, notwithstanding it's hardness.

There is another beautiful obelisk standing amid the ruins of what was once the city of Heliopolis. This, of which like-

wise a delineation is here given, is formed of a single piece of red granite, and covered with hieroglyphics, not injured as those of the obelisk before mentioned, from which it differs very little in size.

POMPEY'S PILLAR,

As it is commonly called, is another monument of antiquity, which has much engaged the attention of travellers, though far less ancient than the obelisks. It has lately been measured with great care, while the French were in possession of Egypt, and the following are it's dimensions, as given by Mr. Norry in his report to the institute.

	metres. cent.	feet. inches. lines.
Height of the pedestal	3, 24	equal to 10, 6, 9.132, english measure.
base	1, 78	5, 9, 7.241
shaft	20, 48	67, 2, 2.176
capital	3, 21	10, 5, 7.383
making in the whole	28, 71	94, 0, 5.932

Mr. Norry likewise reports, that the diameter of the column is

	metres. cent.	feet. inches. lines.
in the lower part	2, 70	equal to 8, 9, 7.613
near the astragal	2, 49	8, 1, 5.363

The shaft and upper member of the base of this pillar are formed of one block of red granite. The capital, which is of a different stone, is of the corinthian order, with palm leaves, not indented. These Mr. Bruce supposes were designed merely to



POMPEY'S PILLAR

support leaves of metal of better workmanship, which would be much less liable to injury, and of which many examples occur at Baalbec and Palmyra.

The foundation of this column consists of two tier of stones. An arab endeavoured to blow up the column, in order to make himself master of the treasures, which he supposed to be buried underneath. His plan miscarried, however; for the explosion of his mine only displaced a few of the stones on one side, thus exposing to view a block of white marble, covered with hieroglyphics in an inverted position, which show it to have been a fragment of some egyptian antiquity. On this block the centre of the pillar rests, as on a pivot. There are among the stones of the foundation another piece of marble of a yellowish colour spotted with red, which has likewise it's hieroglyphics, but much damaged, a piece of a small column, and some other fragments of marble that have nothing remarkable.

Some english seamen, who took it into their heads to drink a bowl of punch on the top of it for a frolic, found there a hole, which first gave reason to suppose, that a statue had been erected upon it. Mr. Norry informs us, that it is a circular cavity, six feet and half in diameter, and about two inches and half deep, which he imagines contained the base of a statue.

Much labour has been spent by the learned in fruitless endeavours to ascertain the time when it was erected, and the purpose for which it was designed. Many have been inclined to suppose it erected in honour of Severus, who visited the city of Alexandria, and conferred on it various benefits; and Abulfeda

has been quoted, as giving it the name of his pillar. But the erudite professor White has lately shown, that the passage in Abulfeda was mistranslated; and with great probability ascribes it's erection to Ptolemy Philadelphus, whose reign was chiefly employed in embellishing Alexandria, imagines the statue upon it to have been that of Ptolemy Soter, and supposes it to have been placed in front of the temple of Serapis.

From the circular cavity discovered by the english seamen there can be little doubt, that a statue was intended to be placed on the top of the column; but it may be questioned, whether any statue were ever erected upon it. If there had, it could not very easily have been removed; and we do not find the least mention of a statue actually standing on the summit in any arabian or other writer. From Mr. Bruce's observation respecting the foliage of the capital it is perhaps more probable, that the pillar was unfinished at the death of Ptolemy Philadelphus; that his son Euergetes, whose life was a succession of wars and conquests from his ascending the throne, neglected to complete the design; and that the rest of the race of the Ptolemies, for the most part tyrants, cared little for the memory of their progenitor; so that neither the metallic foliage, nor the statue of Ptolemy Soter, ever graced the column.

There are some other remains of antiquity in the neighbourhood of Alexandria, of which we have given a representation.



BATIS OF CLEOPATRA, AT ALEXANDRIA.

THE BATH OF CLEOPATRA,

As it is vulgarly called, is a large basin, a little to the west of the old port, on one side of which are three small square rooms, hollowed out of the solid rock. Across these are stone benches, and a canal, made of a zigzag form for the purpose of stopping the sand, conveys into them the water of the sea, as pure and transparent as crystal. The water rises a little higher than the waist of a person sitting on the bench, while his feet rest on a fine sand. He hears the waves roaring against the rock, and foaming in the canal: the swell enters, raises him up, and then subsides; and thus alternately entering and retiring, brings a continual fresh supply of water, with a coolness truly delicious in so hot a climate. Some ruins announce, that once this bath was not destitute of ornament.

The columns of granite, of which a view is given in another plate, are supposed to have formed part of one of the spacious porticoes of the gymnasium near the Canopic gate.

ALEXANDRIA.

Having just mentioned the principal remains of it's antiquities, we shall now proceed to give some account of Alexandria itself, a city on various accounts memorable.

It was founded by Alexander, who saw how well this situation was adapted to an extensive commerce: the comprehensive mind

of that illustrious monarch not confining it's views to the land, being fully aware how conducive a maritime intercourse between the remotest parts would be to his grand object of uniting all nations under one head, and confirming their union by assimilating their manners. The celebrated Dinocrates, who had acquired the highest reputation by rebuilding the temple of Diana at Ephesus, was employed by Alexander for constructing this city. One street of great width intersected it in a straight line from north to south, and was crossed by another equally spacious from east to west. These were decorated by magnificent houses, temples, and public buildings, displaying a profusion of marble and porphyry, destined at a future period to embellish the two capitals of the roman empire. Parallel to these ran other streets of inferiour though not confined dimensions, leaving a free passage to the wind, particularly from the north, which alone conveys coolness and salubrity into Egypt. A mole, near a mile in length, stretched from the continent to the island of Pharos opposite the city, and divided the harbour into two. On this island was erected the famous lighthouse, begun by Ptolemy Soter, and finished in the reign of his son Ptolemy Philadelphus. It was a square tower of several stories, with a lantern at the top, the light of which might be seen for many leagues; and cost eight hundred talents, being adorned with columns, balustrades, and galleries of the finest marble, and exquisitely wrought. Sostrates of Cnidos was the architect. In the great harbour was the island of Antirhodes, on which stood a theatre and a place of royal residence. In the eastern part of the city was a gymnasium, with porticoes of more than six hundred



RUINS OF THE CYNASIUM NEAR THE CANOPIC GATE OF ALEXANDRIA.





GRANITE PILLARS OF THE PORTO DE CANOPIUS IN ANCIENT ALEXANDRIA

feet long, supported by several rows of marble pillars: without the Canopic gate was a spacious circus for the chariot races: and beyond this the suburb of Nicopolis stretched along the shore, forming almost a second city, where was a superb amphitheatre, with a raceground, for the celebration of the quinquennialia.

A considerable portion of the city was occupied by the palace, within the precincts of which were the museum; accommodations for men of learning, in which fourteen thousand scholars at a time were lodged and maintained at the public expense; and a temple, where the body of Alexander was deposited in a golden coffin. This was violated by the infamous Seleucus Cibyofactes, whose avarice tempted him to remove the coffin of gold, and substitute in it's stead one of glass.

In the suburb of Rhacotis was a temple called the Serapeum, built in honour of Serapis, whose image was brought from Pontus to Alexandria in the reign of Ptolemy Soter. This structure, according to Ammianus Marcellinus, surpassed in beauty and magnificence all others in the world, except the Capitol at Rome. When the museum in the palace was filled with books, to the amount of four hundred thousand volumes, an additional library was built within the verge of this temple, which came at length to contain three hundred thousand more. The library in the palace was burnt in the war that Julius Cæsar waged against the egyptians: but Cleopatra having added two hundred thousand volumes from the pergamean library, given her by Mark Antony, to that in the Serapeum, and others from time to time increasing

it's stores, this alone became at length as rich in books as both had formerly been. During the troubles of the roman empire it was frequently plundered, and as often supplied with new books, till at length the khalif Omar's famous syllogism consigned them all to the flames. 'If,' said he to his general Amrou, who took Alexandria, 'the books contain nothing but what is in the Koran, they are useless: if they contain any thing contrary to it, they ought not to be suffered: let them, therefore, be destroyed.' In consequence of this order they were distributed among the keepers of the public baths, of which there were upward of a thousand, and supplied a sufficient quantity of fuel to heat them during the space of six months.

As Alexandria was destitute of fresh water, ample reservoirs were formed underneath the city, to contain the water brought from the Nile by a spacious canal. These reservoirs were arched over with brick, and coated with a cement impenetrable by water, of the same kind as is seen in the ancient baths and reservoirs at Rome and other places. The greater part of these reservoirs are now stopped up; a few only being left, sufficient to supply the wants of the inhabitants of the present town.

Beside thus furnishing the city with water, this canal formed a safe and speedy communication with the Canopic branch of the Nile, by means of which the more circuitous and frequently dangerous passage by the mouth of the river was avoided. It had ceased to be navigable however for ages; but Bonaparte, when in Egypt, cleansed it in some degree, so that during the inundation he was enabled to send provision by it from Cairo to Alexandria,



RUINS OF THE PTOLEMAEAN LIBRARY





MOSQUE WITH AN ANTIQUE FRAGMENT IN OLD ALEXANDRIA NEAR THE GATE OF ROSETTA.

and transport a considerable quantity of artillery from Alexandria to Geeza.

For near three hundred years, during the reigns of the Ptolemies, Alexandria continued to flourish. Its founder having destroyed Tyre, the commerce of the whole world was in its hands: and while it possessed this inexhaustible source of wealth, it could boast such establishments for the promotion of science, as never existed in any other place, even Athens itself not excepted. At length the race of the Ptolemies, eight of whom reigned two hundred and seventy years, began to decline, and Rome laid its grasping hand upon Egypt. Alexandria, which about this time had three hundred thousand freemen on its rolls, soon after fell into decay, and experienced various vicissitudes. Its commercial advantages, however, enabled it in great measure to recover from every fresh calamity it endured, till about the middle of the sixth century it was taken by storm, by Amrou Ebn al Aas, the general of Omar. Of its population at this period we may form an idea from what is said by Amrou, according to whom, it then contained four thousand palaces, four thousand baths, twelve thousand dealers in fresh oil, twelve thousand gardeners, forty thousand jews paying tribute, and four hundred comedians. Arabs, fatimites, curdes, mamalukes, and turks, now annoying Egypt in succession, Alexandria never again recovered its ancient splendour: though it was preserved from destruction, even in the hands of the most barbarous nations, in consequence of the advantages accruing from the East India trade to the masters of Egypt, whoever they might be, till the discovery of the passage round the Cape of Good Hope sealed its ruin.

From this period it has dwindled almost to nothing under the benumbing sceptre of turkish despotism. It's mixed inhabitants of various nations have been lately reckoned not to exceed fourteen or fifteen thousand; though it is said to have furnished the Porte with four thousand men, soldiers and sailors, in the last russian war: and instead of that superb and spacious city, of which there are not now even ruins enough remaining to trace it with accuracy, we have only wretched houses and paltry mosques, occupying a little neck of land between the two ports.

The progressive decline of this city is marked by it's walls. These were raised by one of the successors of Saladin, who had just taken Egypt out of the hands of the khaliffs of the race of Fatima, in the beginning of the thirteenth century. They are composed of fragments of marble and broken columns, the wreck of the ancient city, confounded with common stones; are of great thickness; and are flanked by a hundred towers. A circuit of five miles only is enclosed by them, which shows how much the extent of the city must have been contracted at that period; and even of this space a great portion is now waste ground, occupied by piles of rubbish, and scattered fragments of edifices destroyed.

Such is now Alexandria, founded by the great pupil of Aristotle, rising into extraordinary splendour under the earliest of the Ptolemies, the seat of learning, the emporium of the world, where Cæsar, enthralled by the charms and wiles of Cleopatra, had nearly sunk in that flood of luxury, by which Antony was afterward overwhelmed, leaving the temperate Augustus to enjoy unrivalled the empire of Rome.





EXTERIOR VIEW OF THE ANCIENT WALL OF ALEXANDRIA, WITH CLEOPATRA'S NEEDLE.

But Alexandria deserves our notice on another account. ' If, says Herder, ' Jerusalem were the cradle of christianity, Alexandria was it's school. Into this ocean of science and of philosophy, where the notions of all ages and all people were collected together, the drop of christianity was thrown, and attracted to itself whatever it supposed itself capable of assimilating. Hence various corruptions were generated, and the simplicity of the christian doctrines destroyed. It is certain, however, the earlier fathers of the church, who were formed in Alexandria, were none of the worst. Origen alone did more for christianity than ten thousand bishops and patriarchs; since, but for the learned critical industry, which he employed on the records of christianity, these would have gone near to sink among unclassic fables. His spirit was transmitted to some of his scholars also; and many fathers of the alexandrian school thought and argued at least with more address and refinement, than many other ignorant and fanatic heads. Probably it would not have been to be regretted, had the system of christianity remained, what, according to the representations of a Justin Martyr, Clement of Alexandria, and some others, it was intended to be; a liberal philosophy, reprobating virtue and the love of truth at no time, and among no people, and yet unacquainted with exclusive verbal formularies, which afterward obtained the force of laws.'

The soil in the neighbourhood of Alexandria was anciently famed for it's fertility, and still retains the same reputation. It's harvests have been said to yield a centuple product, which might possibly be true when dourra was sown, of which the bread of the

lower class of people in the east is commonly made. Of wheat it usually produces from seven to fifteen fold, though in extraordinary years it has yielded twenty-four, or even upward. Mr. Forskaol informs us, that the fields near the canal are sown in october, and reaped in february; but those nearer the town, which cannot be watered by the Nile, are not sown till november. The wheat in these is ripe in february, and the barley in march.

The canal of Alexandria having long been obstructed, boats cannot reach the Nile from this city but by sailing along the coast to Rosetta, situate at the mouth of the Bolbitine branch of that river, which now forms the western limit of the Delta. In this voyage, about five leagues from Alexandria, they pass

ABOUKEER, the ancient CANOPUS.

The city of Canopus is said to have been built on an island, standing at the mouth of a branch of the Nile, which took it's name from the city, and bounded the Delta on this side: but the island is now a part of the main land, and the Canopic branch of the Nile is choked up. A temple of Serapis stood here, that was particularly famed; and great numbers of strangers were continually resorting to the city, to pay their devotions to the deity: or rather, perhaps, to enjoy the pleasures of the place. This concourse of visitors, who had nothing to do but to attend the rites of an idol, and wealth enough to undertake a voyage for the purpose, would naturally seek pleasure, and amusement for their vacant hours. A city abounding with riches, in a country fertile



FOR THE LADY AND GENTLEMAN



to profusion, and in a genial clime, would offer no check to their wishes. Thus the people of Canopus became notorious for the luxury and dissoluteness of their manners, which were carried to an unbounded pitch. The sources, however, that gave wealth to the people, and fertility to their fields, have long been dried up; and nothing remains of the city but ruins, which still display sufficient vestiges of it's ancient grandeur.

Aboukeer, which now occupies it's site, is a small village, inhabited by a few fishermen, and sailors who navigate the little vessels of the country, too poor to furnish a traveller with bread, or any other necessary, except a little fish. In front of the village is a very good road, where the french fleet, that conveyed Bonaparte and his army to Egypt, lay at anchor under the command of admiral Brueys, when it was attacked by admiral Nelson, and almost every ship that composed it taken or destroyed, only two ships of the line and two frigates escaping. On the point of a cape running out into the sea stood a paltry castle, in the centre of which was a round tower, serving for a lighthouse.

The view we have given of this place represents it as it appeared before the late expedition to Egypt. When the french attacked the turks here under Mustapha bashaw, many of the houses, as well as the castle, were beaten into ruins by their cannons; and others were demolished to make room for the fortifications, which they erected in order to defend the place, when it was in their possession.

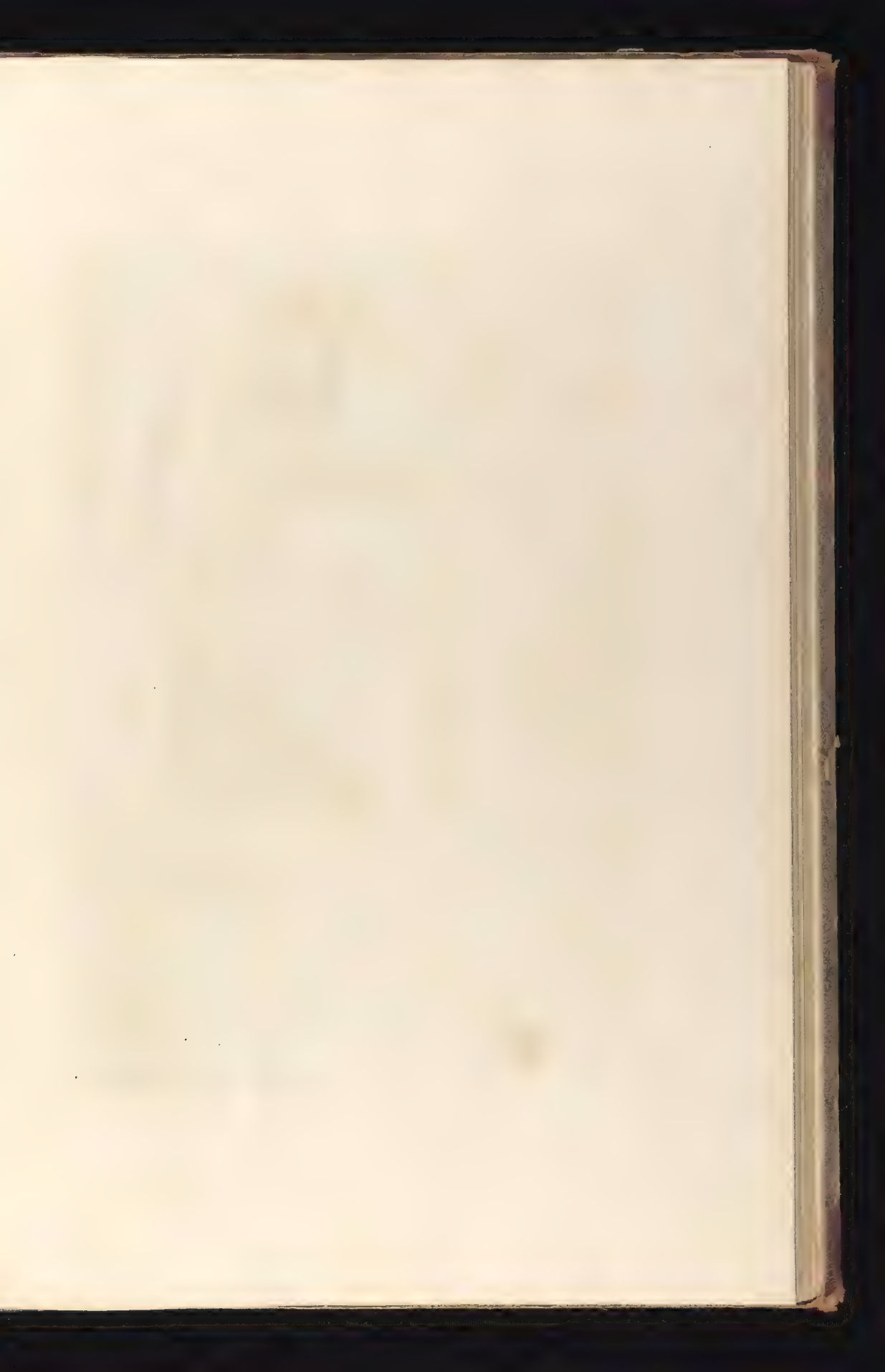
RASHID, or ROSETTA.

Near where Bolbitine formerly stood, is a populous modern city, about two miles long, built in a tolerably handsome though simple style, and not disfigured by ruins like Alexandria. Its arabic name of Rashid is commonly softened by europeans into Rosetta, or Rossetta. It is the commercial depository between Alexandria and Cairo, and of all places in Egypt the most agreeable residence for a foreigner. Pleasantly situate on the border of the Nile; commanding a prospect of two beautiful islands a little below the town, and a fertile country on the opposite bank; skirted on the north by fields covered with odoriferous flowers, grateful fruits, and useful vegetables; the stranger may walk unmolested through the streets abounding with well filled shops, or into the delicious gardens that adjoin the city. It is perfectly open, having no wall; and the houses are built more in the european manner than those of the rest of Egypt, having a regular succession of stories one above another. Many of the houses are raised on a row of columns, a few feet in height, consisting of fragments of ancient pillars of all sorts and kinds. Some of them have no base, some no capital. Sometimes you will see the upper parts of two pillars of different orders joined together, the inverted capital of one of them serving as a base to the new made column; and if either of them happen to have been fractured obliquely, the modern architect, unequal to the task of reducing the surface to a level, has filled up the vacuity with pieces of stone or brick embedded



CITY OF ROSETTA.

Painted by J. M. W. Turner, R. A. 1828.





SEPULCHRES OF ARABIAN SAINTS NEAR ROSSETTA

in mortar. A little way within these columns a wall is carried up to support the floor. This mode of building is not peculiar to Rosetta, though more common there, than it is in most other parts of Egypt.

The europeans settled here consist only of a few factors, and a viceconsul or two, subordinate to the consuls at Cairo. Goods are brought from Cairo to this place, and conveyed hence to Cairo, in the vessels of the country: and the commercial intercourse between this place and Alexandria is carried on in the same manner, for no foreign ships are allowed to come hither. Indeed the passage of the Bogaz, or mouth of the Nile, is obstructed by a dangerous bar; on which the sea breaks heavily, if the wind blow at all fresh, particularly to the northward; and which is continually shifting, so that the pilots are obliged to be almost always sounding, to find the channel. It is also too shallow to admit any vessel that draws much water, though this is the deepest of the branches of the Nile, that communicate with the Mediterranean.

Beside the commodities it receives from Cairo, it transmits to Alexandria others of it's own. Striped and coarse linens are manufactured here in considerable quantity; and abundance of rice of excellent quality is produced in the neighbourhood, much of which is exported.

The castle of Rosetto, about two miles north of the town, is scarcely worth mentioning as a fortress. It was a square building of brick cased with stone, with round towers at the corners of it, and portholes near the bottom; but is now nearly demolished.

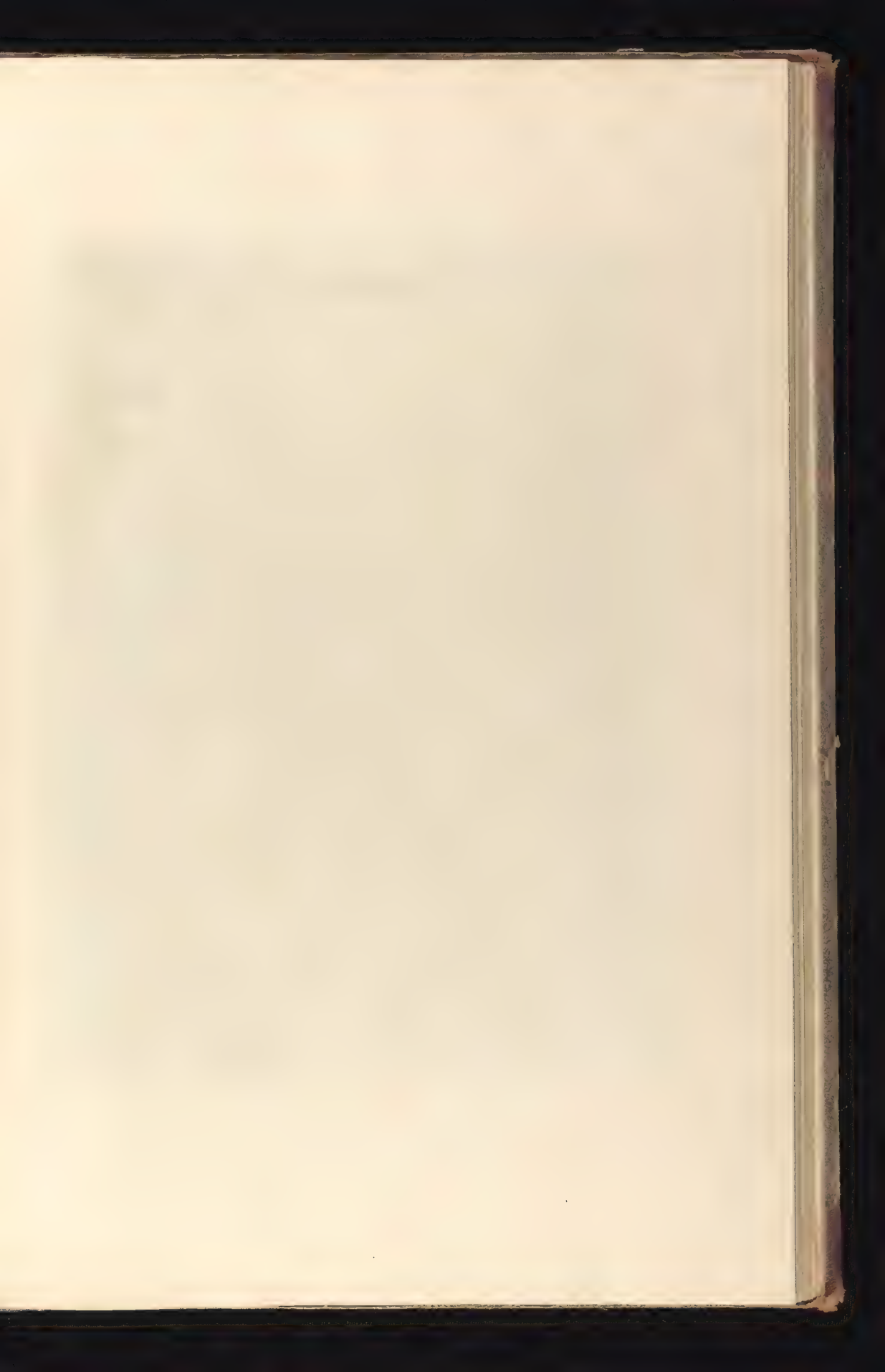
Lewis IX of France, commonly called St. Lewis, is said by some to have built it in the time of the croisades: others ascribe it to Keyck bey, about four centuries ago. Most probably it was erected in the time of the holy wars, and repaired, with the addition of portholes, by Keyck. Opposite to it was another castle, intended in conjunction with it to defend the entrance of the Nile. The city itself is without fortifications.

In this part of Egypt we have striking evidence of the importance of an industrious population to the fertility of the land. All the tract between the bolbitine branch of the Nile and what was once the canopic formerly belonged to the Delta, abounded with people, and was by no means inferiour in fruitfulness to any other part of this most fertile portion of the country. War and massacre, despotism and tyranny, fanaticism and ignorance, thinned the numbers of the inhabitants, and palsied the industry of those who were left. By degrees the fertile mould disappeared, and gave way to barren sand; even the western arm of the river itself was choked up, and converted in part into a stagnant salt-water marsh; and the whole tract, with the land, once fruitful likewise, that skirted it on the side of Lybia, is now almost an uninhabited desert, two spots excepted, Rosetto and Alexandria. Here we still see the effects of industry amid the surrounding waste. Such of the land near Alexandria as continues to be watered by it's canal retains much of it's ancient character: and the immediate vicinity of Rosetto, the inhabitants of which are the least fanatic, and the least exposed to the scourge of tyranny, of any in Egypt, is a delicious garden.



MOSQUE OF AHMED - MANDOR







THE TOWN OF POIA, ON THE BANKS OF THE NILE.

FOUA.

Farther up this branch of the Nile is Foua, near which is supposed to have stood in ancient times the city of Metelis, celebrated for the female singers and dancers educated there, who made it their profession to travel about, and exhibit their skill at public festivals. Even in the present day most of the itinerants of this description in Egypt come from Foua.

Here, as in other places, hieroglyphics have long ceased to give any value to the stone on which they are cut, many fine pieces of red granite insculptured with them appearing confounded with others in the steps leading down to the river. See the plate.

CAIRO.

This city, the present metropolis of Egypt, is seated on the eastern side of the Nile, a few miles before it begins to branch off and form the Delta. It has been erroneously considered as of vast extent, and containing an infinite number of inhabitants. In it are commonly included three towns, Old Cairo, Cairo properly so called, and Bulac, which are about a mile distant from each other.

The ancient city, which seems to have succeeded to the Egyptian Babylon, and was built near it, was called Misr, the old name of Egypt. It is now reduced to a small compass, not being above two miles round; is the port for the boats, that come

from upper Egypt to the capital; and some of the beys and other principal inhabitants of Cairo have a sort of country houses in it, to which they retire, when the Nile is at it's height. There is nothing in it worthy notice, except perhaps Joseph's granary, as it is called, for the people here are inclined to ascribe every thing extraordinary to Joseph. This is a large square, surrounded by a wall, with several partitions, in which the corn brought from different parts of Egypt, and paid as a tax to the grand signior, is deposited. As this granary is entirely open at the top, the corn is not only exposed to the weather, but to the depredations of the pigeons and other birds, that feed on it unmolested, and leave their dung in return for the grain they carry away. The doors have only wooden fastenings; but the officers who have the charge of the granary, after they shut a door, affix to it their seal on a handful of clay, which they use instead of wax. This building, notwithstanding it's name, has no claim to antiquity. The walls are modern, partly of freestone, but chiefly of bricks and clay, such as are every day used at New Cairo.

Between Old and New Cairo another city was built, called Kebabeh, which has been since destroyed, but it's ruins are still to be seen.

New Cairo stands about a mile from the river, and stretches near two miles eastward to the mountains. It's circumference is about seven miles; though it is said to have been larger, when it was the centre of trade from the East Indies. A wall of stone surrounds it, on which are handsome battlements, and at the distance of every hundred paces very fine towers, capable of holding



CITY OF GRAND CAIRO - ARABIAN ARCHITECTURE



PRINCIPAL SQUARE IN GRAND CAIRO, WITH MURAD BEY'S PALACE.

a great many people. This wall was never very high, and had gone to ruin in many places, but the french repaired it as well as they were able, while they were in possession of the place. In it are three or four very grand gates, that were built by the mamalukes. The workmanship of them is very good, and, amid all the simplicity of the architecture, every one must be struck with the magnificence that appears in them. Of one of these we have given a view, which will enable the reader to form a just idea of their style.

The streets of Cairo are narrow, irregular, unpaved, and almost destitute of beauty. The houses are generally built round a court, toward which they make the best appearance, in the outside facing the street nothing but use being considered, and all their ornament being reserved for the saloons within. Unlike the european, who is desirous of rendering the appearance of his mansion pleasing to others, the jealous and selfish mussulman would keep all his pleasures to himself, and gratify no eyes but his own. His outer wall, built below of stone, and above with a sort of framework, sometimes filled up with unburned bricks, and having no windows, or a few placed without order, can afford no agreeable object to the passenger, of whom he is perfectly regardless.

Though the streets of Cairo are narrow, it is not without some squares, which are large irregular places, partaking of the general character of the city, except that they are spacious. The view of the great square exhibits no unfavourable picture of them, when the waters of the Nile, with which the ground was covered during the inundation, have retired, and given place to a cheerful

verdure, not yet parched up by the sun. On the left may be distinguished the house of Murad bey, of whom we shall have occasion to speak hereafter.

There are in Cairo several magnificent mosques, which, though they do not possess the elegance of grecian architecture, are no unimportant ornaments to a city so little embellished. Sultan Hassen's, built at the foot of the castle hill, is very lofty, of an oblong square figure, crowned with a cornice all round, that projects a great way, and is adorned with a particular sort of grotesque carvings after the turkish manner. The entrance into it is very finely inlaid with several sorts of marble, and carved in a similar manner at top. Several steps formed the ascent to it; but these have been broken down, and the door walled up, because the rebels often took shelter there in times of insurrection. What has given particular celebrity to the mosque of Four Hundred Pillars is sufficiently marked by it's name. But the views given of different mosques in this work will convey a more adequate idea of their style, than any description.

The castle of Cairo stands on a rocky hill, which seems to have been separated by art from the neighbouring mountain, *Jibbel Duise*; and which is called *Jibbel Mocattem*, or the Cut Mountain, more probably on this account, than because there is a way up to the castle cut in the rock. It resembles a small town walled all round, but is so commanded by the hill to the east, that it would be little capable of defence since the invention of cannon, were it kept in much better repair than it is. At the west of the castle are remains of very grand apartments; some of



THE MOSQUE OF FOUR HUNDRED PILLARS AT CAIRO.



THE LOVERS FOUNTAIN, WITH THE ADJACENT MOSQUE





RUINS OF THE CASTLE OF CARD, NEAR JOSEPH'S HALL.



JOSEPH'S HALL, IN THE CASTLE OF CAIRO.

Painted by J. Brown. Engraved by J. Brown.

them covered with domes, and decorated with paintings, gildings, arabic inscriptions, and representations of trees and houses in mosaic; once belonging no doubt to the ancient sultans. This part of the castle is now used only for weaving, embroidering, and preparing the hangings, or coverings, sent every year to the temple of Mecca.

Above this is a higher ground to the east, near the grand saloon commonly called Joseph's hall, whence there is a fine prospect of Cairo, the pyramids, and all the country round. This ground was probably a terrace to that magnificent room, which is now all open, except on the south side, and is adorned with very large and beautiful pillars of red granite, little inferior in magnitude to those of the Rotunda at Rome.

To procure a supply of water must always have been essential to the defence of the castle, and for this a well, which has not perhaps it's equal, has been cut through the rock. The mouth of this well is a parallelogram four and twenty feet long, and eighteen feet wide. Round it is cut a staircase six feet wide, and nine feet high, separated from the well by a partition left of the native rock only six inches in thickness, with apertures at certain distances to admit light. At the depth of a hundred and forty six feet is a reservoir; and from this the water is drawn up by two oxen, turning a wheel, round which passes a rope carrying a number of earthen pitchers. At this depth is a platform, with a second wheel, to which two oxen descend by the staircase already mentioned, the steps being covered with earth for the purpose: and these oxen draw the water up to the reservoir in a similar manner

from the spring, which is at the bottom of a second well, a hundred and thirty feet deep, and containing about nine or ten feet of water. This second well is less than the former, its opening being only fifteen feet long, by nine broad. There is a descent to the bottom of this likewise by steps cut round it; but these are only three feet and half broad, and have no partition between them and the well, and the roof is only six feet high. The water of this well, being drawn up from the subterranean reservoir to another at the surface, is distributed all over the castle by a multitude of pipes; but as it is brackish, it is employed only for ordinary purposes, a sufficient supply of the water of the Nile being brought by an aqueduct from Old Cairo: though if this were cut off by an enemy, the well would be a valuable resource to a besieged garrison.

In the city of Cairo are several baths, some of them very handsome within; and these are much frequented, not only on account of the religion of the mohammedans, which enjoins frequent ablutions, but as they are extremely agreeable in such a climate. There are some baths devoted entirely to the use of the women; and in such as are common to both sexes it is usual to set apart certain times for their admission, during which men are strictly excluded. The women are particularly fond of them, and commonly spend the greater part of the day at the bath once or twice a week, being glad of a pretence to escape from their confinement, and exhibit their finery, or gossip with one another. This is an enjoyment, however, of which the wives of the great are deprived, for their husbands take care to have baths fitted up for them in their own houses.



EGYPTIAN ANTIQUITIES IN THE VESTIBULE OF A COUNTRYHOUSE AT BULAC.

Here are likewise many spacious and handsome coffee-houses, the tops of which have several apertures, which keep them very cool. They will very conveniently hold some hundreds of persons, but they are frequented by few but the common people, many of whom spend the greater part of the night in them.

Bulac is the port of Cairo. Built for the accommodation of the vessels that come up the Nile, it stretches along it's bank to some distance, and exhibits all the hurry and bustle of trade. As it is a more healthy and pleasant residence than Cairo itself, it seems natural that it should have been preferred by europeans, who settle here for the sake of commerce. But whether they chose to fix themselves at Cairo, in order to be more immediately under the protection of the government; or whether the bashaw thought proper to keep them more under his eye, and in his power; they live at Cairo, and have their warehouses in that city; where a street is appropriated to their use, closed at one end by gates, and at the other terminating in a handsome garden, in which they can enjoy a little air and exercise, when they wish to avoid the haughty mamaluke or surly turk, or when the plague induces them to seclude themselves from all intercourse with the rest of the city.

The trade carried on at Cairo is certainly very considerable. We are informed, that the amount of the goods entered at the custom-house in 1783 was between six and seven millions sterling. The rice, corn, flax, and coffee exported, were valued at nearly two millions; beside the drugs, spices, cotton, leather, and other commodities.

The population of Cairo has been estimated at two millions, but this may be considered as greatly beyond the truth; though it is positively affirmed, that seven thousand have died in one day of the plague; and of this they say they can make an exact computation, from the number of biers that are hired to carry out the dead. We may justly reckon it, however, to be a very populous place; for in general several families live in one house, and a number of persons in each chamber of it; and during the busy time of the day all the streets are so crowded with people, that it is difficult enough to pass through them.

In the middle of the river, between Old Cairo and Geeza, is the island of Rhoda, in which stands the Nilometer, already described in this work. Almost all the island is divided into gardens, the cultivators of which are it's only inhabitants.

The views which Mr. Mayer has drawn of different parts of the metropolis, of Alexandria, of Rosetta, and of Aboukeer, give a lively representation of the general style of building in the towns of Egypt; but the series would be imperfect, were the village excluded. Those of Kafr Radoin, and Ned Sili, situate on the banks of the Nile between Cairo and Rosetta, with some others, will sufficiently display it's rural architecture, while the appearance of the country itself is faithfully exhibited in a great many of the plates. In general the rustic habitations of the egyptians are slight, so that the loss of them is easily repaired, when they are carried away by the Nile, which sometimes happens. For though the current of this river is not in general very rapid, it occasionally undermines it's banks, till at length they sink into the stream, with the houses,



AN ARABIAN STEAMER HUGO SETTING SAIL FOR AFRICA, THE FRAGMENTS OF THE CANAL OF NERDUF



THE CITY OF MENOUP.

From a drawing by the late Mr. J. B. 1844.

trees, and every thing on them. The mould and sand, being washed away, are deposited in some place where the current slackens, extending the limits of the shore, or giving rise to new islands, destined perhaps on some future occasion to be removed in a similar manner, and transferred to a different situation. Such occurrences happening before our eyes in the present day certainly tend to confirm the opinion, that the Delta itself is an ancient gift of the Nile.

MANNERS, CUSTOMS, &c.

The ancient government of Egypt, at least in the time of the pharaohs, which is as far back as we are able to trace it, bore a striking resemblance to our own. To use the words of Dr. Rutherford, whose able investigation of it is eloquently delivered in the true spirit of history, 'it was not despotic; it was indeed truly monarchical, from the principle and form of it's constitution; and it is the single government of all antiquity, which corresponds to our idea of monarchy. Limits were set to the royal power by the laws; the order of succession was regulated; the king had not the right of judging or pronouncing sentence in any civil cause; the administration of justice was confined to a particular body, whose credit could counterbalance all the authority of the pharaohs. Thus, to use the language of Montesquieu, the powers were divided. The judicial power was separated from royalty. Thirty judges formed the august tribunal, which decided concerning the lives and fortunes of the people. They had fixed revenues, and

held their offices for life, which rendered them independent of the prince. These judges took a solemn oath at their installation, that they would disobey the king, in case he should order them to pronounce an unjust sentence. Beside this college of thirty, which resided at Thebes, particular magistrates in the towns decided in certain causes. The monarch did not even tax his subjects without their consent. The provinces sent, from time to time, deputies, who met in the labyrinths, to determine all affairs of state. Their manner of administering justice had something in it august and sacred, and gives us the idea of a grave but a just people. No advocate appeared at the tribunal. Eloquence was not permitted to dazzle and deceive. The whole process was committed to writing. The president wore about his neck a figure without eyes, representing truth: he touched with this emblem the head of the party in whose favour the determination was made.

‘ In consequence of the limited monarchy that was established in Egypt, we find a greater regard paid to the rights of the subject, than was known or imagined in the oriental empires. The two great objects of government, security to the property and the lives of the citizens, were maintained by the laws. We have already described the administration of justice. The person of the subject also was protected. A reverence was shown to the natural rights of man. Human blood was respected. Pecuniary compensations for murder, which mark a certain stage of society between barbarity and refinement, were unknown in Egypt. The lives of all the subjects were equally secured. Murder was pu-

nished with death, without respect to person or dignity; but a fair trial always preceded the sentence. The summary decisions of despotic government were unknown. The pannel was acquitted or condemned according to the laws.

‘ The sacred records, which, in every particular that regards Egypt, correspond with the best information from classical antiquity, confirm these accounts. Joseph, a hebrew slave, is accused of having offered the most outrageous and provoking affront to his master, one of the greatest lords in the court of the pharaoh. His lord did not doom him to instant death, as an eastern despot would have done: he sent him to the common prison, that he might be tried according to the laws.’

Such was the government of Egypt during it's most flourishing state. It has since varied with the different revolutions the country has undergone, though always more or less despotic, till at length it has sunk into a condition, than which a worse is not easy to be conceived; and the country, as well as it's inhabitants, has participated it's decline.

When Selim I conquered Egypt in 1517, he sent a bashaw to govern it as his lieutenant. At the same time fearing this viceroy would soon assume independance, if he left him in possession of uncontrolled authority, he appointed twenty-four beys from among such of the mamalukes as he had not exterminated. These were to govern the provinces independently of the bashaw, to command the troops, and to form a divan or council of state. One of their number was to conduct the caravan to Mecca, one to convey the tribute to Constantinople, and one was to be elected sheik

el belled, but subject to the confirmation of the bashaw. This sheik el belled was to be considered as the chief of the republic, as Selim styled it; and to represent it's grievances to the Porte, if any act of oppression were committed by the bashaw, whose authority the beys were commissioned to suspend on such occasions. Thus holding the bashaw in check at their first establishment, enjoying despotic power themselves, and employing the greater part of the wealth they acquired or extorted in maintaining a retinue of slaves, trained to the exercise of arms, and well mounted and accoutred, it was no wonder the sultan's viceroy sunk into a mere phantom of a governor, while the ambitious beys contended among themselves for the real sovereignty.

Accordingly these beys, of whom however there was seldom the full complement, were perpetually involved in broils with each other; parties were formed, battles fought, and it was happy for the people, when one possessed sufficient strength to acquire the supreme power, and hold it without a rival. Still each of the beys, whether residing in the metropolis as a joint or subordinate ruler, or wandering about the country expelled from it by a successful antagonist, exercised the most unlimited authority over the people; and a train of inferiour officers acted with equal despotism in their respective departments. There are perhaps four hundred inhabitants in Cairo, says Mr. Bruce, who have absolute power, and administer what they call justice, in their own way, and according to their own views: but a more brutal, unjust, tyrannical, oppressive, avaricious set of infernal miscreants there is not on Earth, than are the members of the government of Cairo.

Of the religion of the ancient egyptians our knowledge is obscure and imperfect. The traditional notions handed down from our first progenitors, occasionally misconceived from the natural imperfections of language, and blended with discoveries in arts and sciences as they arose, probably formed its basis; as of paganism in general. The hieroglyphical writing of the egyptians must have been a prolific source of corruption. Whether the philosopher, aware that sounds are in themselves no adequate representatives of visible objects, invented this symbolical language, to depict things with more precision, and thus, as he imagined, secure them from being misconceived: or the priest, the depositary of all knowledge, framed it to conceal what he knew from the vulgar; though the abundance of hieroglyphical writings, every where exposed to public view, seems to favour the former opinion: they were probably soon misunderstood, the mind resting on the symbol, or, not contented with the obvious signification, rushing beyond it, and losing itself in the unfathomable sea of mystery. Hence in process of time arose a multifarious mass of mythology, in which the celestial bodies, the powers of nature, the phenomena peculiar to the country, and the traditions of the creation of the world, were jumbled together, and blended with the worship of animals, which the philosopher having first taught men to spare for the benefits they did, the mystagogue at length exalted to the rank of gods. Nay even some of the tribe of vegetables were considered as a sort of divinities; and the satirist of other heathen nations, in which deities were sufficiently abundant, could ridicule the egyptians for the multitude they adored. Many of

these, however, were local deities merely: this city was famous for the worship of one animal, that for the worship of another; and the people of one village treated with contempt, what those of a neighbouring village held sacred.

We have already observed, that christianity soon took root in grecian Egypt, where it quickly flourished, but soon corrupted as it spread. The verbal disputes that arose, and ultimately produced scenes disgraceful to humanity from a source calculated to exalt human nature to it's highest pitch of perfection, were not all it had to lament. Among the egyptians, previously addicted to a life of contemplation, seclusion, and pious indolence, monachism soon spread wide, with it's unnatural and unholy vows of celibacy, idleness, and poverty; certainly far from beneficial to the general morals of those sects by which it has been cherished, and even in the present day not extinguished in some of the enlightened nations, as they are called, of Europe. The city of Oxyrinchus so abounded with monasteries, that the greater number of it's inhabitants we are told consisted of monks, and the deserts of the Thebaid were peopled with anchorites.

The copts, or present natives of Egypt, still profess christianity; of which, descended to them through this polluted channel, they know little but the name; their monkish priests themselves being almost as ignorant as the vulgar. But this is not to be considered as the established religion of the country, though the copts are indulged in it's exercise by their mohammedan conquerors, who introduced islamism; which is the faith of those who have the law in their hands, as well as of the arabs that

wander about the deserts, or cultivate the fields on which they are settled as farmers.

The population of Egypt is estimated at four millions of people. Consisting of a mixture of turks, mamalukes, arabs, and copts, each of these races has its peculiarities, though the general manners of the east are more or less common to them all. The turks, who at least claim the title of masters of Egypt, are chiefly to be met with at Cairo, Alexandria, Rosetta, and Damietta, either as soldiers, or in religious employments. They have little authority, however, and the janizaries themselves, without discipline and without spirit, are as much afraid of the mamalukes as any others of the people. This may be one reason, perhaps, why they are much more insolent than the arabs to europeans, against whom they are early taught to conceive an antipathy, for their mothers employ the term european as a bugbear to frighten them when infants. By the arabs they are looked on with no friendly eye; and such of them as make the pilgrimage to Mecca with the caravans are exposed to be plundered and ill treated by them, after they have left Cairo.

The mamalukes, who are the real governors of Egypt, are a body of slaves. Torn from their native country; strangers to the ties of parental affection, for they have been most of them sold by their own parents, and have seldom any offspring of their own; bred up in the most infamous practices, and surrounded by the vilest examples; no wonder that they deserve in general the character Mr. Bruce has given them. Not but that some among them possess good qualities, and even virtues of a certain class:

and perhaps it affords one of the strongest proofs of the radical excellence of human nature, that these should occasionally appear among a set of men, whose education, as well as all the circumstances amid which they are placed, tends in almost every way to corrupt the mind, and deprave the heart. Many of these were born of christian parents, and a few among them are negroes: but all have been brought hither from a foreign country as slaves, and purchased in the market by some bey, who was once himself a mamaluke. Whatever the boy may have been, as soon as he is brought into the house of the bey, he is initiated into the faith of his master by circumcision, taught to manage a horse, and instructed in the use of arms, chiefly the javelin and the scymetar. To excel in these, and to pay implicit obedience to his master, who has early made him acquainted with a vice, from the very mention of which every one who deserves the name of man turns with abhorrence, are the only objects of his regard; and by their means he may hope to reach the height of power. When of a proper age, and sufficiently expert in his exercises, the young mamaluke considers himself as a soldier, a title he does not allow to the turk who fights on foot; and never appears abroad but on horseback, a privilege confined almost to himself, for on the horse the christian is forbidden to ride, and even the wealthy mussulman merchant or priest contents himself with the ass or mule.

The mamaluke who is so fortunate as to please his master may expect, to be soon provided with some post, whence he is promoted in proportion to the power and interest his patron possesses, till at length he is created a bey himself. As all power



PIAZZA DEL POPOLO, ROME. THE SQUARE OF MONTREAL DEVS PALACE

here depends upon the strength a man has at command, each of the beys is eager to purchase as many of these slaves as he can maintain, and put them into posts where they may acquire the means of procuring similar followers for themselves, that he may enlarge the number of his partisans, and thus obtain the sovereignty over his fellow beys, or at least preserve an equal share of authority, without being overborn by a superiour. In this contest for power battles are often fought; and he who can bring the most followers into the field, or whose adherents are the bravest and most expert in the use of their weapons, generally expels his rival from the metropolis, if he do not deprive him of his life.

This martial retinue is happily very expensive, a circumstance which tends to diminish the number of tyrants. The dress of the mamalukes consists of a wide shirt of yellowish cotton, over which is a gown of india linen, or some of the light stuffs of Damascus or Aleppo. This gown is covered by the caftan, usually made of some finer stuff, or silk, and having sleeves that reach down to the ends of the fingers. These garments are fastened by a sash, that divides them into two bundles. Over all these is worn the jouba, a sort of coat nearly similar in shape to the former, only the sleeves are cut at the elbow. This is made of cloth, sometimes without lining, at other times lined throughout with fur, even in summer. The benish, or robe of ceremony, is put over this, and so completely covers the wearer, that even the ends of his fingers are not to be seen. Out of this sack are thrust a bare neck, and a bald head covered with a yellow turban, which has a roll of muslin artfully folded up round it's lower border. To complete this cumbersome

attire, they wear a kind of trowsers long enough to reach up to the chin, and so large that each of the legs is big enough to contain a man's body. That they may not be totally incapacitated for walking, all the loose parts of their dress are bound up by a sash.

The accoutrements of their horses are little less clumsy. On the back part of the saddle is a trussequin about eight inches in height, and in front the pommel rises four or five inches. Instead of a stuffed frame three thick woollen cloths are placed under the saddle, the whole being tied with a surcingle, which is not fastened by a buckle, but by leathern thongs tied in very complicated knots, and liable to slip. The stirrups are made of copper, frequently gilt, longer and wider than the foot, having circular borders, an inch high in the middle, and the edge terminating posteriorly in a sharp point, which is used instead of a spur. These stirrups never weigh less than nine or ten pounds, and often thirteen or more, while the saddle and its other accessories are not less than five and twenty. Their principal weapon is the scymetar, the blade of which is at least thirty inches long, though it is so much curved, that it measures but two feet in a straight line from hilt to point. This is slung in a shoulder-belt, richly adorned with gold and silver. They have likewise an english blunderbuss, about thirty inches long, and capable of discharging ten or a dozen balls at a time; and sometimes they carry a heavy mace at their saddle bow, beside a brace of large pistols stuck in their sash.

Every return of the fast of Ramadan their masters must give them a new suit of clothes; and they frequently require fresh



A MANGLIK'S EXERCISING.



AN ARAB SHEIK OF A VILLAGE IN EGYPT.

horses, or furniture for them. Thus there is not one of them who does not cost above a hundred pounds a year, and many of them above two hundred.

It is a singular circumstance, that for a series of ages a set of men in power should never have attempted to leave their wealth and dignity to their own offspring, in preference to a stranger, to a slave they have bought. It is true the beys rarely have children, and if they have any they seldom live; both which circumstances are probably owing to their prostitution from early youth: but whatever number of children a bey may leave behind him when he dies, his hasnadar, or treasurer, who is the chief of his domestic officers, chosen by the bey from among his mamalukes, and governs his whole household, marries his wife, and inherits his dignity and fortune.

Of the arabs, who are reckoned to constitute two thirds of the population of Egypt, there are different tribes, but they are commonly distinguished by their mode of life into two classes; the fellahs, who are inhabitants of the villages; and the bedoweens, or wandering arabs, who dwell in tents. The fellahs having fixed habitations, and a more settled intercourse with the other people of the country, have in some measure adopted the manners of those about them; but the bedoweens remain the same as they were in remote ages. Roaming the deserts in quest of pasture for their sheep and camels, they have an invincible aversion to constraint, and consider the inhabitants of cities as buried alive. They hold themselves the sovereigns of the barren districts over which they wander, and think they have consequently a right to exact an

arbitrary toll from those who pass through it, if they do not esteem the property of all who enter upon their territory as confiscated. This the traveller styles robbery; and to avoid it he arms himself, associates with others, and a numerous caravan is formed. The bedoween chief, conceiving himself thus defrauded of his dues, assembles his tribe; and, if he be strong enough, attacks the caravan openly; if too weak, endeavours to surprise it, cut off some of the stragglers, or carry off a part of it's camels by night. To pursue a regular commerce in such a mode, however, exposes the merchant to hazards he would willingly avoid, and to free himself from which he agrees to pay a certain tribute. But perhaps the love of gain prompts him to endeavour to evade what he deems an imposition, the arab finds the compact infringed, fresh feuds arise, and a state of warfare commences, terminating in a new accommodation.

In this manner the principal part of the trade of Egypt is carried on. Every year two caravans arrive at Cairo from the south and western parts of Africa, bringing slaves, gum, ivory, gold-dust, ostrich feathers, ebony, civet, musk, the leathern thongs used for giving the bastinado, leathern water-bags, parrots, and monkeys. That from the south consists of nubians, the other of jalofs. A third caravan comes from Morocco with pilgrims for Mecca, who pass through Cairo.

That the bedoween are addicted to plunder, whenever a favourable opportunity offers, is not to be denied; but they are certainly capable of executing with fidelity any engagement into which they enter, they hold the laws of hospitality sacred, and

they have been known to succour and convey to the place of their destination those whom they have robbed. There is an oriental proverb, which says, the people of Aleppo are splendid, those of Syria are sordid, the egyptians are thieves, and the hindooos are the favourites of God. To which of the different races that inhabit Egypt this particularly applies, we know not; or whether it be common to them all. It should seem the latter, according to a celebrated traveller of Florence, abate Sestini, who observes; 'the climate of this country, though esteemed the best in the world, has both a moral and physical influence on the inhabitants; so that, without disparagement to the probity of any particular person, Egypt may be styled a den of thieves.' Possibly, however, the oriental proverb is of no very ancient date, and this characteristic may be less ascribable to the climate, than to the government, of which we have already spoken, and of which the same italian writer says: 'when a government once good arrives at a certain pitch of depravity, it's annihilation must ensue, and probably the period is not far distant, in which this country will experience a great revolution.' It may not be amiss to observe, that this prediction was published above thirteen years ago.

The hospitality of the arabs has always been a subject of praise, and is a virtue still practised among them, in common with all people whose life approaches to the state of nature. The civilities they show the passenger, and the invitations he receives to whatever they may have to bestow, are no unwelcome circumstances of his journey; though in a country where villages are thinly scattered, and the peasant has seldom much beyond a bare sufficiency of

coarse food, the traveller can place little reliance on this for his accommodation or subsistence.

It has been remarked, that the people of Egypt are never truly gay, yet they are by no means without their festivities. The view of a ball at Ned Sili will give a just idea of their mode of dancing, and instruments of music; and the fair at Kafr Raduan is curious, as a delineation of their manners on such occasions. These fairs are commonly held once a year, and continue a month. As the savoyard in Europe, so here the native of Yemen travels about with the docile ape of his country, taught to exhibit a thousand antics for the amusement of the populace, and to gain a livelihood for his master.

The coffee-houses of the city, where the mussulman, squatting in silence on the floor on his mat, slowly inhales the fume of tobacco through his long pipe, or sups a simple decoction of pounded coffee without milk or sugar, would be dull indeed, were they not occasionally enlivened by different amusements. Among these the itinerant orator holds a distinguished place. Some poor scholar usually visits them at stated hours, reciting sometimes the illustrious deeds of Antar, an arabian hero, who lived before Mohammed, of Rustam Zaul, the persian, or of Bibars, king of Egypt: and sometimes the comical adventures of Bahluldahn, the buffoon of the celebrated khalif Haroun al Rashid, in which excellent morals are often pointedly inculcated. The skilful orator walks about as he recites, suiting his action in a lively manner to his discourse; and occasionally delivers tales or fables of his own composition. When he has finished, he collects his remuneration



AN EGYPTIAN BALL, AT NED SULI.

Painted by J. H. Stoddard, from a sketch by G. H. Stoddard.



AN EAST-INDIAN FAIR AT AFRICA.

from the company; and as this will commonly be proportionate to the skill of his performance, he has another incentive to excel, in addition to the desire of fame. They have likewise vocal and instrumental music, puppetshows, the magic lantern, and other diversions.

While the men have their coffee-houses, the women in Egypt, as we have already observed, have their baths, where they enjoy some degree of emancipation from the secluded state, in which they are kept by their domestic tyrants. In some respects indeed they enjoy advantages over the men. They are not exposed like the men to be plundered and ill treated by the great. All their clothes and jewels are their own property, over which the husband has no power. They may inherit land, as well as the men, and receive possession of it on paying a fine to the government, from which none are exempt: and as the public opinion is favourable to them, their property is in general more respected, and they are treated with more equity. Their complaints likewise are heard with far more patience, though sometimes, when they imagine any injustice is done them, carried to intemperance.

That the dissipation of the higher classes, in countries arrived at a certain pitch of luxury, should stifle the sentiments of nature, need not excite our wonder; but it is remarkable, that, even among the arabs of the desert, some of the wives of the more opulent do not suckle their own children, but employ wet-nurses.

The manner in which the egyptian women carry their children, is calculated to excite astonishment in a european spectator. An infant not more than a year or two old, perfectly naked, as

they are all, both boys and girls, till they are twelve or fourteen years of age, sits on one of the mother's shoulders, and preserves it's seat by grasping it's parent's head. Thus the woman takes it constantly about with her, on whatever she may be employed. Even when washing her clothes at the river's side, as, kneeling on a stone, she bends over the water in which both her hands are busily rubbing them, the child clings to her head like a little ape; having nothing to secure it from falling into the stream, if it should let go it's hold.

Where the best means of accomplishing our purposes are wanting, frequently simple yet ingenious methods suggest themselves to the uncultivated mind. By night the arab, like Shakespeare's waggoner, reads the hours in the position of the stars; but in the day he measures the length of his shadow, making proper allowances for the season of the year. Thus, at the summer solstice, when his shadow extends the length of one of his feet from the vertical point, it is noon; and when eight feet, it is midway between noon and sunset or sunrise: but in the winter the shadow at noon extends nine feet, and so in proportion.

For navigating or crossing the Nile boats of various sizes are used, but these are not always at command. Different expedients are then employed. Two men will place themselves on a truss of straw: the foremost holds in one hand the tail of a cow swimming before it, and guides the animal by a rope fastened to her horns, while the other steers this temporary boat with an oar. But perhaps neither cow nor straw is at hand: a large log of wood then answers the purpose, on which they get astride, after tying their



THE KAHOA NEAR NEDSHE

clothes in a bundle on their heads, and paddle it along with their hands. Even this is not necessary. The gardener going to market will frequently fasten his load of melons and other vegetables together with wisps of straw, and thus let it float behind him, while he swims over the river, and draws it along by means of a rope fastened to a coarse cloth, that goes round his breast; his clothes being bound upon his head, as in the former instance. When loaded camels are to pass the river, they are tied in a string, one to the tail of another; a man swimming before holds in his mouth the bridle of the first camel; and another man, sitting on a truss of straw, brings up the rear, and sees that the rest follow in order.

The dealers in earthen jars likewise dispense with the use of boats. To convey these down the Nile, from the places where they are fabricated, to Cairo and the Delta, they bind a number of them together in a triangular form, and fasten on the top of this float a deck of palm branches. Here the owner sits, and rows with a pair of oars, or drives with the current, till he arrives at the place of his destination; then he unties his raft, disposes of his jars, and makes the best of his way home with the money, or with the necessaries he purchases, which he carries on his back. Sometimes these rafts are made larger; two or three joining their wares together; and not unfrequently the men are provided with nets, resembling our casting nets, with which they catch fish on their passage. In the use of these they are very adroit, one man, standing at the point or head of the triangular raft, throws in his net; as he draws it out, two others, at the opposite corners, throw in

theirs; and this they repeat in perfect time with surprising regularity. In carrying the materials, making the pots, and conveying them to market, two thousand men are said to find employment.

There are several kinds of fish in this river, among which a large variety of the sprat is very plentiful, and there are a few that are not known elsewhere. Of these some are very good eating, and others are used as food only by the common people, who scarcely ever taste any other sort of animal diet. The arabs, indeed, are very fond of locusts, which they broil; and sometimes considerable flights of these are brought even to Cairo by the winds blowing from the desert. When they have large quantities, they boil them slightly, and dry many of them on the tops of their houses, to keep; the rest they eat fresh with a little salt. The chief food of the common people, however, is a kind of heavy bread, made of coarse flower of the dourra, a plant of the grass tribe, which yields an abundant increase, but the seeds are small, nearly as those of millet. The peasant sows wheat, it is true, but it is a luxury he does not taste; and the barley, that grows in his fields, is appropriated to the use of the horse, of which it is the common food. The date palm, the most common tree in Egypt, affords another article of diet, which is particularly useful in long journeys. It's fruit, pounded and kneaded together, is formed into large solid cakes, and dried. Pieces of these, which are so hard they must be cut with a hatchet, make, when diluted with water, a refreshing and nutritious beverage. The sugar-cane grows in Egypt, and sugar is made from it, some of which is of a pretty

good quality; but the greater part of it is eaten green, chiefly by the common people and women, who are very fond of it; and in this state it is sold, tied up in little bundles, in all the cities.

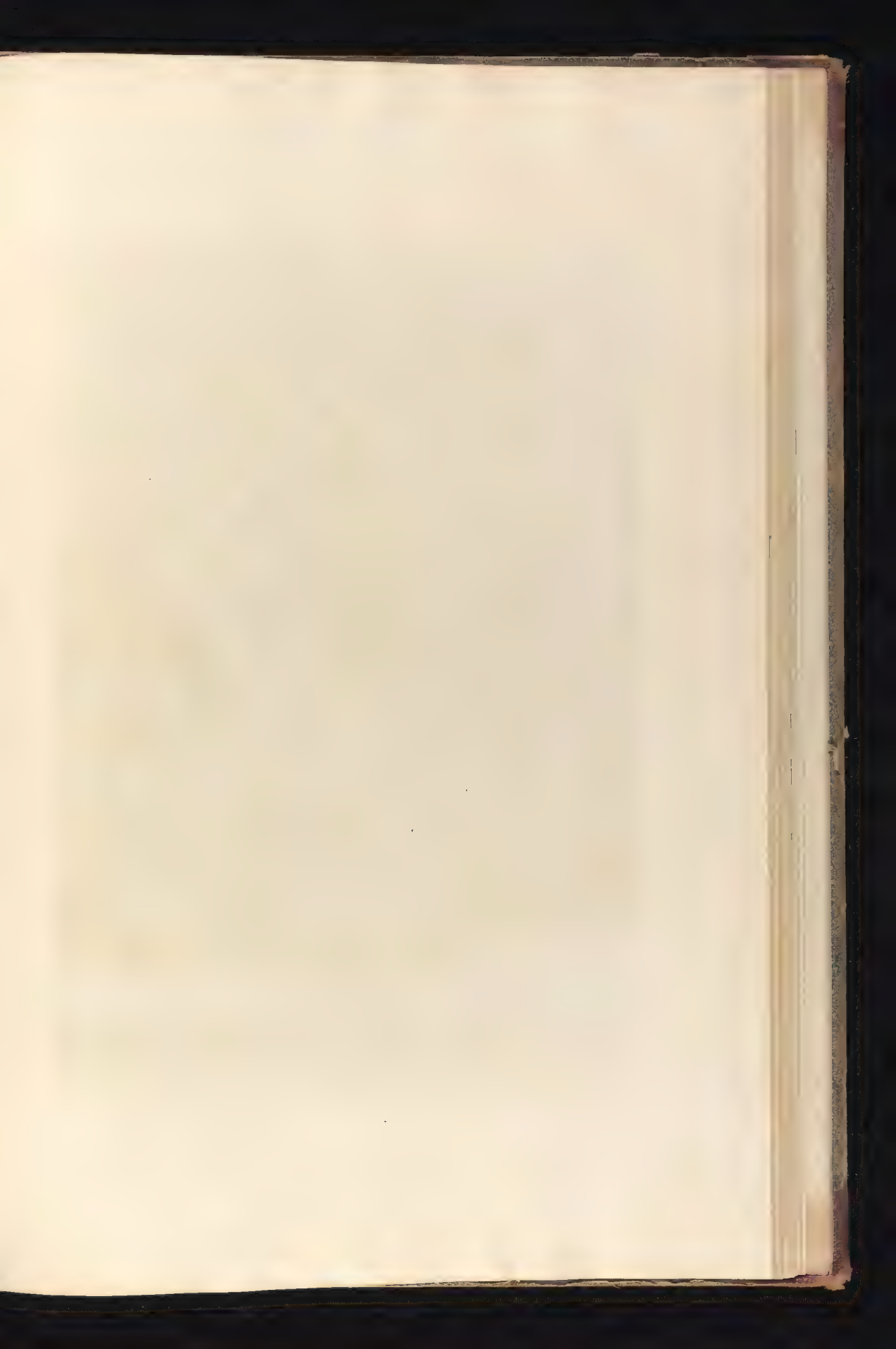
A common culinary vegetable in Egypt is the lablab, a leguminous plant, of which arbours are frequently formed, as it may be trained in any manner like our scarlet bean. The common mallow, too, is cultivated for the use of the kitchen, being more usually boiled with meat in lower Egypt than any other vegetable; and two other plants of a more mucilaginous nature, resembling the marsh mallow, are equally employed as food.

The gardens of Egypt abound with pleasant fruits. The banana, custard-apple, pomegranate, orange, lemon, tamarind, grape, fig, melon, apricot, and olive, are found in them; beside some fruits peculiar to the country, as the nabeca, which grows on a species of rhamnus, and resembles a small round apple, pleasant enough to the taste, when neither green nor too ripe; and the doum, which is a species of date. They likewise produce a species of cyperus, the fleshy tubercles among the roots of which, called abelasis, resemble the chesnut in flavour, and are much esteemed in some places. Nurses frequently eat them, imagining they increase the quantity of their milk.

As a substitute for intoxicating liquors, a species of hemp is cultivated in Egypt, called hashish, or the herb, by way of eminence. The fruit of this, with it's capsule, is pounded to a paste, mixed with honey, pepper, and nutmeg, and swallowed in pieces about the size of a nut. The poor merely pound the capsules in water, and swallow the paste, or eat the capsules without any

preparation. Sometimes they powder the capsules, mix the powder with an equal quantity of tobacco, and smoke the mixture. Not that they are without strong liquors, though forbidden to the rich mussulman by his religion, but still more efficaciously to the poor by his inability to purchase them; for the egyptian makes a syrup from his dates, and frequently distils from this a spirit.

All the arts that are requisite to furnish the people of Egypt with whatever is necessary for their use, and with some of the superfluities of life, are practised among them; though the artisan has seldom the skill of the mechanic of Europe, or rather perhaps is rarely furnished with implements so well adapted to his purposes. The object however is answered, and frequently by means that would foil the european: where two hands are insufficient, the egyptian readily employs one of his feet as a third. One circumstance in the art of shipbuilding is particularly worthy notice. The canja, well adapted to cut the sometimes rapid current of the Nile with speed and safety, would be in imminent danger in a river where shallows continually shifting their situation abound, and where there is no flow of tide; if, when impelled by a brisk wind acting on it's ample sail, it struck upon a sand; were it not for a very sagacious contrivance. The keel, instead of being straight, as in european vessels, is a section of a parabola; so that it is deepest in the water where it meets the stem, which is straight, and not rounding upwards. This part, therefore, necessarily touches the shoal first, and is soon stopped, while the bulk of the vessel continues afloat, so that it can be gotten off again without much difficulty. Possibly this invention is to be ascribed to the ancient





AN OTTOMAN BEY.

egyptians, so eminent for their skill in the arts and sciences, and preserved by custom, or from a sense of it's utility, to the present day. This is the more probable, as the figures of some of the vessels in the ancient grottoes are close resemblances of the modern canjas; except that the cabin appears a little loftier; that they have a square sail, for which the latin sail, adopted we may presume from the romans, has been substituted; and that they steered with a wheel: not indeed as we do, for the wheel appears to have been fixed to the end of the tiller as to an axis, and to have revolved on the deck. But whoever were the inventors, might it not be employed by us with advantage for ships exploring unknown seas, or where perpetually exposed to the danger of those coral rocks, lurking beneath the surface of the water, that render navigation so perilous?

Having thus briefly touched on the peculiarities in the manners and customs of Egypt, we shall conclude this head with an account of the dresses of it's inhabitants.

The egyptian bey is distinguished by a very high kaouk, or turban, the upper part of which is enlarged with orange-coloured cloth wound spirally round it, and the long band of muslin is crossed obliquely by a cord of gold twist. His gown is of silk and cotton, flowered with gold and silver: his caftan of the same materials, but of a different colour and pattern: over this is a pelisse of ermine or sable: an india shawl forms his sash: his benish is of scarlet, ornamented with six gold clasps: and his trowsers, of the finest scarlet cloth, reach down to his shoes. Of these he wears two pair; the outer ones, which he leaves at the door, when he

goes into a house, of yellow leather; the inner ones, generally of similar leather, but sometimes of cloth, or silk. The mamalukes, whom we have noticed already, have no gold twist round their turban.

Dress is an object of considerable attention among the ladies, whose husbands are in the least degree of affluence. The following is the description of that of a merchant's wife at Cairo. On her head a round diadem, like a plate, covered with an india shawl, which conceals all the hair in front, only a few locks appear at the temples; and the hair behind is interlaced with gold twist, reaching down to the small of the back, and having various ornaments of gold fastened to it. Round the arms, bracelets of gold. A fine shirt of silk and cotton, with striped sleeves. A gown of silk, flowered with gold and silver, and reaching to the feet, with large sleeves. An india shawl as a sash. A pelisse of coloured silk lined with fur, which reaches to the calf of the leg. A pair of silk trowsers of some light showy colour. Inside shoes of silk embroidered with gold, and outside shoes of the same. Her slave commonly wears a shirt of silk and cotton; a very short gown, with a sash of common muslin either worked or printed; and a pair of striped trowsers.

Among the amusements of Egypt, as well as of the more polished countries of Europe, the exhibition of public dances makes a part. The female performers on these occasions wear a band of black silk, covering half the forehead, and concealing all the hair in front: a handkerchief of yellow cotton, with flowers and stripes of various colours, bound round the head above the ears: the hair



A LADY OF CAIRO.



EGYPTIAN DANCING GIRLS.



AN EGYPTIAN PEASANT AND FAMILY.

Engraved by P. Kneller, sculpsit J. M. 1840.



A SEEDWOMEN MAN AND WOMAN.

hanging down behind, interlaced with long red strings, to which are appended various jewels of silver: a very long cotton shirt, striped with thin silk: a short gown of similar materials, with sleeves reaching only to the middle of the arms, and lined at the corners with coloured silk: a broad sash of coloured silk, fringed, and the fringe adorned with small pieces of silver coin: and a pair of trowsers of striped cotton, nearly reaching to the ground. They wear likewise rings on the fingers, bracelets round the wrists, and a necklace; and to complete their ornaments, the face, bosom, and backs of the hands, are marked with black spots, stars, and other figures in black.

The dress of a female peasant consists of a white handkerchief, passing round the head, and tied behind; a band of black silk reaching to the forehead; a triangular mask of black silk, fastened behind by two of it's corners, and prevented from slipping down by a ribband passing to the forehead; and a very wide shirt of blue cotton, reaching to the feet, with large sleeves. The man wears a cap of red cloth, with a band of white cotton rolled round it to form the turban; a shirt of yellowish cotton, not reaching to the knees, and a sash of red cloth.

The bedoween wears a shirt of coarse woollen cloth, tied round the waist commonly with a girdle of red or blue woollen; and a sort of cloak, wound about the head, and descending to the calf of the leg: this dress is common to both sexes, but the cloak of the woman is somewhat longer, and folded up to the girdle; and she has usually a piece of cloth passing over the forehead, and tied under the chin. In a basket resting on the back, or supported

by the arm, and secured by a string passing round the head, the man carries provision, and the woman ordinarily a child. The sheik of his tribe has a cap of red cloth; a large turban of coarse white muslin; an under gown of silk and cotton, white with coloured stripes; a caftan, or second garment, somewhat longer, of the same materials, but of a different colour, and drawn up at the two corners to a sash, which is generally a coloured or flowered shawl of indian manufacture; a pair of trowsers of coarse white cotton; slippers of yellow leather, turning up at the toes; a large white or coloured shawl thrown over the shoulders; and a benish, or upper garment, of common cloth, with long sleeves, which is worn only when he goes out.

HISTORY.

The ancient history of Egypt, like that of other countries, begins with fable, which gradually gives way to accounts on which greater dependance can be placed, as we approach more recent times. Some particulars of the most striking parts of it have been briefly noticed in the description of Alexandria; and we do not think it necessary here to enter into what has been given at large by all, who have written on the subject; as the events that have recently occurred, and of which no connected view has yet been published, will probably be more interesting to the majority of our readers.

We have already observed, that the authority of the grand seignior in Egypt was little more than a shadow; some powerful



AN EGYPTIAN HERDSMAN.

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THE GATE OF ROSSETA, ALEXANDRIA

bey, or beys, being in fact it's precarious sovereigns, obeying or despising the mandates of their nominal liege, as it suited their own purposes, and tyrannising over an oppressed and abject people without fear, and without control.

Such was the state of Egypt, when that revolution burst out in France, which spread the flames of war far and wide. The events of this war, however, are foreign to our purpose, till the conquest of Egypt was meditated by a man, who has shown himself equal to the most daring enterprises; and proved by his successes how much resolute impetuosity may achieve, when guided by keen and comprehensive intellect.

After an empty parade of a threatened invasion of the British isles, one of the wings of the army of England, as it had been ostentatiously called, embarked at Toulon. On the 19th of may, 1798, a hundred and ninety-four vessels sailed from that port, carrying nineteen thousand soldiers, beside two thousand artificers, artists, and men of letters. These steered their course up the Mediterranean, and captured Malta in their way. On the 1st of july they entered the road of Alexandria, and the same evening disembarked, being at this time thirty thousand strong. In the night they reached the city; and at daybreak commenced the attack, without waiting for the landing of artillery. General Kleber was to scale the wall on the side of Pompey's pillar; general Bon, to force the Rosetta gate; and general Menou, to blockade the triangular castle with a part of his division, while with the rest he went against another part of the enclosure, and forced it. He was the first that entered the town. General Kleber was at

the foot of the wall, pointing to the place by which he wished the grenadiers to ascend, when he was struck on the forehead by a ball, which brought him to the ground; but he was not fated to meet death in the field of battle. All the three divisions having entered the place, the defendants fled for refuge into the triangular fort, the pharos, and the new town. Even the houses were defended; but before the close of the day the city was quiet, the two castles had surrendered, and the french were in complete possession of Alexandria.

The arabs, collecting in the desert in troops of cavalry, harassed the skirts of the army, and fell upon the stragglers: but it was not long before Bonaparte concluded with them a treaty of friendship. Desirous if possible to prevent his scheme from being opposed by the forces of the Porte, the french general erected the ottoman standard in conjunction with the tricolor flag on the walls of Alexandria; and professed that his only objects were to chastise the mamalukes, by whom the french merchants had been oppressed; and to restore to the grand seignior the sovereignty of Egypt, which the beys had long in reality usurped. A letter to this purpose he transmitted to the bashaw at Cairo; and he entered into a convention with the mufti and principal sheiks at Alexandria, by which he engaged not to interfere with the laws, religion, or institutions of the country. Before he quitted Alexandria, he ordered the bodies of the french soldiers, about a hundred and fifty, who had fallen there, to be interred at the foot of Pompey's pillar, and their names to be inscribed on it's base.

After giving directions for putting the port and town of Alex-



PART OF THE NEW CITY OF ALEXANDRIA WITH THE LIGHT HOUSE

Published by the Author, 1841, at No. 1, St. Martin's Lane, W.C.

andria into a proper state of defence, and arranging a provisional government, Bonaparte set out for Cairo, which he deemed it necessary to reach without loss of time. He began his march by way of Damanhour with the main body of the army on the evening of the 7th of july; general Desaix having preceded him with his division on the 4th; and the division of general Kleber, who was left to command at Alexandria till his wound was healed, being ordered on the 5th to take possession of Rosetta, leave a garrison there, and proceed up the left bank of the Nile. Annoyed by extreme heat in their forced march across a sandy desert, and perpetually harassed in their rear by the arabs, they reached Damanhour on the 8th. After a day's rest, they proceeded toward Rhamanie; midway to which place the division of general Desaix was attacked by a body of six thousand mamalukes: but the artillery of the french, and the advantages of discipline, soon compelled them to retire.

Meanwhile Mourad bey, at the head of his numerous army of cavalry, and having seven gunboats, with 29 or 36 pounders, on the Nile, waited for the french at the village of Sharbrass. On the 13th at daybreak the hostile armies were in sight of each other. Bonaparte had commanded the french flotilla to follow the movements of the army, and to harass the right of the enemy by a brisk cannonade. Forming his troops in parallelograms, with their baggage, and such as were lamed by their march, in the centre; and drawing them up in divisions, disposed in the order of steps, so that one flanked another, with their fieldpieces pointing on every side; the mamalukes found no weak point, on which

they could make any impression, and several times endeavoured to charge, but without effect. Having thus spent great part of the day within about half cannon shot of the french, they retreated with the loss of near three hundred men. The squadron of Mourad likewise retired, leaving behind three french vessels, which it had taken in the beginning of the action, plundered, and run aground.

The french pursued their march, in want of almost every thing, and scorched by excessive heat, till the 20th of july. On the morning of this day they perceived the pyramids, and in the evening were within fifteen miles of Cairo. Here they learned, that twenty-three beys, with all their troops, were intrenched at Embabe, a village opposite Bulac, and had fortified their intrenchments with fifty pieces of cannon. On the 21st at daybreak they fell in with the advanced guard of the mamalukes, and drove them from village to village, till two in the afternoon, when they had nearly reached their intrenchments. Advancing in the same order of battle as the 13th, the divisions of generals Desaix and Regnier took a position on the right, between Giraló and Embabe, so as to cut off from the mamalukes all communication with Upper Egypt, to which they would naturally endeavour to retire, if defeated; the division of general Kleber formed the centre of the army; and that of general Bon the left wing, which was covered on it's flank by the Nile.

As soon as Mourad bey was apprised of the movement of general Desaix, he determined to attack him, and dispatched for this purpose one of his most resolute beys, with a chosen body of cavalry, which rushed with the rapidity of lightning on the two

divisions. They were suffered to approach unmolested within a hundred yards, when a shower of great and small shot was poured on them, which made considerable havock; and as they threw themselves into the opening between the two divisions, they were received by a cross fire, which completed their defeat. While this was passing on the right, the divisions of Menou and Bon attacked the intrenchments of Embabe. General Rampon, at the head of the assaulting columns, advanced with impetuosity, in spite of the cannonade. The mamalukes too made a vigorous charge from the intrenchments, darting from them at full gallop; but the french columns had time to halt, to present a front on every side, and to receive them at the point of the bayonet, after a general discharge of their muskets. Their dead fell thick on the field of battle, and the french soon carried the intrenchments. The discomfited mamalukes urged their flight in a crowd toward their left, where many fell by the fire of a battalion of carabineers, under which they were obliged to pass at the distance of five hundred paces, and many were driven into the Nile and drowned. In this battle the mamalukes lost seven or eight hundred killed and wounded, among whom were several beys; their commander, Mourad, was wounded in the cheek; and more than four hundred camels laden with baggage, and fifty pieces of artillery, fell into the hands of the french, who had about two hundred men killed and wounded.

The mamalukes, having experienced this defeat of their army, evacuated Cairo in the night, after burning the greater part of their ships of war: and on the 22d of july the french took pos-

session of the capital of Egypt. At the same time, to hold in check the troops of Mourad, Bonaparte directed an intrenched camp to be formed higher up the Nile, at the distance of ten miles from Cairo.

While such was the progress of the french by land, the fleet, which had conveyed them to Egypt, lay at anchor in the bay of Aboukeer, under the command of admiral Brueys. Expecting an attack from the english, the french admiral had anchored his ships in a line, as near the shore as he thought he could venture with safety, and, as he hoped, to preclude the english from getting between them and the land. In this however he was mistaken. On the 1st of august lord Nelson arrived in the bay, and by one of those bold and scientific manœuvres, which distinguish british seamen, he ran between the french line and the shore with half his squadron, so as to place it's van between two fires. The french, thus hemmed in, defended themselves with great gallantry. At half past five in the afternoon the attack commenced: about a quarter after nine the admiral's ship, *l'Orient*, of 120 guns, took fire; and at ten o'clock it blew up: the brave Brueys having before been cut in two by a chainshot on the quarterdeck, on which he maintained his post though he had previously received three severe wounds. As the english silenced the fire of the headmost ships, they proceeded to those in the rear, and thus the action continued till the afternoon of the next day, when two french ships of the line, and two frigates, which had yet suffered little, cut their cables, and stood out to sea. These alone escaped, only one of the english ships being in a condition to pursue them: six

sail of the line were taken: one was run on shore, and burnt by its captain: three others were burnt by the english, two of them having previously run aground during the action: one frigate was burnt, and another sunk. In this action the french fleet consisted of thirteen sail of the line, and four frigates, mounting 1190 guns, and was supported by a battery of guns and mortars on shore, with several gunboats on the flanks: the english fleet had likewise thirteen sail of the line, one of which however ran aground, and could have no concern in the action, one fifty gun ship, and a brig, carrying in all 1026 guns.

This destruction of their fleet cut off all hope of retreat from the french, as well as every expectation of reinforcement or supplies; so that no safety remained for them but in victory, no dependance but on their own resources. When Bonaparte had remained a sufficient time at Cairo, to form such regulations, and adopt such precautions, as he deemed necessary to secure this acquisition, he set out on his march to finish the conquest of Egypt, and drive entirely out of the country Ibrahim bey, who had fled with his army toward Syria. On the 7th of august he departed with an army draughted from three different divisions of his troops; and after a forced march of four hours, the advanced guard arrived at Salahieh, just as Ibrahim was hastening off at the news of their approach. His rear guard was attacked by a small body of french hussars and chasseurs; but these were too few, to make any impression on it. Ibrahim was pursued into the desert, where he abandoned two pieces of cannon scarcely serviceable, and a few tired horses laden with tents: and near Belbeis the french

rescued a part of the caravan of Mecca, which the arabs had carried off into the desert.

While Bonaparte was arranging the government of Egypt, and establishing a society of arts and sciences in it's capital, as in the midst of a country enjoying the profoundest peace, brigadier general Fuguières was sent with a battalion to Mehallet Kabira, the capital of Garbich, where he was obliged to sustain a conflict for an hour, before he was able to gain admittance into the village. At Gomila, too, a battalion commanded by general Damas was attacked by a party of arabs, but they were soon dispersed. At the same time the arabs of Bonde, believing their village impregnable, as it was surrounded by the inundation, infested the Nile by their piratical depredations. Generals Murat and Lasne marching thither, where they arrived on the 28th of september, dispersed the arabs after a few volleys, and pursued them for twelve miles up to the middle in water. Their horses, camels, and effects, fell into the hands of the french, and about two hundred were killed or wounded.

Meanwhile general Desaix had left Cairo, and proceeded up the Nile with two half-galleys and six advice-boats. At Fehuesa, on the canal of Joseph, fourteen boats, laden with baggage, tents, and four pieces of cannon, belonging to Mourad bey, fell into his hands. He continued his course two hundred and fifty miles from Cairo, following the bey's little fleet; which at length took refuge in the neighbourhood of the cataracts, and then he gave up the pursuit. On his return he had several skirmishes at Felmese, which were the prelude to the affair of Sediman. On the

7th of october, when the day broke, he had arrived in sight of Mourad bey's army, consisting of six or seven thousand horse, and a body of foot, which defended the intrenchments at Sediman with four pieces of cannon. The mamalukes did not long hesitate to commence the attack, and were received by the french with great coolness. The chasseurs of the twenty-first demibrigade did not fire, till their adversaries were within twenty yards, and then they rushed on with fixed bayonets. Many of the brave mamalukes fell dead in the ranks of the french, after having thrown maces, battleaxes, muskets, and pistols, at the heads of their enemies. They even alighted from their horses, to avoid the bayonets, and cut the legs of the french soldiers. Their intrepidity, however, was of no avail; they were at length obliged to flee; and the french made themselves masters of the intrenchments by assault. Two of the beys with Mourad were wounded; and three left on the field of battle, with four hundred of his bravest troops; while the loss of the french was but trifling.

While such was the state of the country, Cairo itself had not settled into a calm submission. Informed that the inhabitants were plotting in secret, to throw off the yoke of their new conquerors, Bonaparte deemed it a necessary measure of security, to arm every european in the metropolis. This was done in the beginning of october, but it did not stay the rising ferment. On the morning of the 21st, general Dupuis, to whom the command of the town had been intrusted, heard that a crowd was collecting at the grand mosque. The cause assigned for this tumultuous meeting was the oppressiveness of the taxes imposed. Attended

by twelve dragoons, general Dupuis repaired thither, and attempted to disperse the mob by force. Some of his men were killed in the conflict; the rest bore him off, mortally wounded in two places, to his own house, where he died two hours after. This was the signal for a general insurrection. The turks immediately flocked in crowds to the grand mosque, where they intrenched themselves, armed with lances, stakes, and a few fire-arms. But they did not assemble here alone: every mosque was a fortress, to which parties repaired for defence, or from which they issued to the attack, as occasion required. The drums of the french beat to arms, and every soldier hastened to join the corps that first fell in his way. A battalion was ordered by Bonaparte to march toward the great mosque; and a few bombs thrown into it created great terrour and confusion. Other battalions proceeded to different parts of the city, where crowds had collected, and soon drove them all into the mosques for refuge. But here they found no security. With all the veneration they had professed for the religion of Mohammed, the french hesitated not to burst open the gates of the mosques, now converted into castles, and deluge their pavements with blood. Though thus defeated, still the insurgents were not subdued; expecting no mercy, fresh multitudes succeeded those that were slain, to fall like them in rash and unsuccessful enterprise.

This was a bloody day, but the scenes of the following were still more sanguinary. Every person seen armed with a stake or a bludgeon was immediately put to death; and the turks on their part had already assassinated several frenchmen found alone in the

streets. On the 23d symptoms of the same resentful feelings still prevailed; but in the evening tranquillity began to return. On this occasion five or six thousand turks were computed to have been slain; and of the french at least a hundred fell, beside numbers being wounded, chiefly by large stones thrown from the tops of the houses.

Though the danger that threatened the french in the capital of Egypt had thus been crushed, Bonaparte was well aware, that he had others of serious aspect to encounter. Ibrahim bey had fled toward Gaza, with a body of mamalukes; and had been welcomed by Djezzar, the bashaw of Acre, who was making hostile dispositions on the eastern frontier of Egypt. With this it was to be expected an attack on Egypt by sea would be made by the porte, with some assistance from the english. To frustrate these designs, therefore, Bonaparte resolved to march without delay into Syria, and attack Djezzar before he had time to collect all his forces. By this he would spread the terrour of his arms, already victorious in Egypt, throughout the ottoman dominions in Asia; success would probably add to his strength by the addition of allies; and perhaps he might be enabled to dictate his own terms to the grand seignior under the walls of Constantinople, and make even Vienna tremble.

Previous to this, however, he deemed it necessary to take possession of Suez; where he learned, that Djezzar had been created bashaw of Egypt and Damascus, that he was collecting his troops, and that a body of them was already in the neighbourhood of el Arish, situate only a day's journey from the border of the desert.

Having returned to Cairo, appointed commanders for that city, Alexandria, and Damietta, and issued such directions as he deemed necessary, Bonaparte commenced his march for Syria. On the 9th of february, 1799, general Regnier, with his division, arrived before el Arish, which he found occupied by two thousand of Djezzar's troops. The village was carried by assault; and the fort, to which a great number had retired, was blockaded. Different reinforcements of mussulman cavalry and infantry, with a convoy of provision, arrived near the place; and on the 14th they boldly advanced, and encamped before the fort, under a platform, defended by a very deep ditch, where they thought themselves secure. General Kleber having arrived with some more troops, general Regnier communicated to him a project he had of surprising the mamalukes in the night, which Kleber approved. Accordingly, in the night of the 14th, part of Regnier's division turned the ditch that protected their camp, fell upon them unawares, killed great numbers, put the rest to flight, and took several horses, with all their provision, ammunition, and baggage. On the 17th Bonaparte arrived; one of the towers was cannonaded; a breach was made; and the garrison was summoned to surrender. On the 20th a capitulation was signed, when sixteen hundred men marched out with arms and baggage, on condition of going to Bagdat by the way of the desert.

To enter into the particulars of the campaign in Syria would be foreign to our purpose: suffice it to say, that the french met with no check till they reached Acre, before which place they opened their trenches, at the distance of three hundred yards, on

the 20th of march. Here Bonaparte was fated to find, that his arms were not irresistible. Sixty days the trenches were open before the town; during which extraordinary efforts of unavailing bravery were made by the besiegers; the obstinacy and perseverance of whose repeated attacks sufficiently show the importance, which the commander in chief attached to the success of this expedition. Fortunately for the turks they were assisted in their defence by a detachment from the gallant crews of a small english squadron, under the command of sir William Sidney Smith, to whose courage and abilities the preservation of the place may be ascribed.

His purpose baffled, and all his exertions foiled, on the night of the 20th of may Bonaparte raised the siege, and quietly decamped, to return to Egypt. On the 14th of june he arrived again at Cairo; where, as well as at Alexandria, several disturbances had taken place during his absence; but they had been quelled by the commanders of those cities. It was not long before Bonaparte was informed by general Desaix, that the mamalukes in different divisions were preparing to cover a landing, either at the tower of the Arabs, or at Aboukeer. On the 14th of july general Lagrange left Cairo with a flying column, surprised an encampment of the mamalukes at Sababiar, drove them into the desert, and took all their baggage, with seven hundred camels. General Murat, with another column, dispersed the arabs at the Natron lakes. On the same day Bonaparte set out from Cairo with the horse and foot guards, two companies of grenadiers, the pioneers, and two pieces of cannon. At Geeza he halted, and

ordered general Murat to join him. Near the pyramids the advanced guard came in sight of some arabs, belonging to the rear of Mourad bey's army, pursued them, killed a few men, and took some camels.

But Bonaparte was prevented from following Mourad by a letter from Alexandria, which informed him, that a turkish fleet of a hundred sail had anchored at Aboukeer on the 10th, and appeared to have some hostile intentions against that place. Immediately he returned to Geeza; and, after making the necessary arrangements, and issuing his orders, set off for the seacoast. On the 19th he arrived at Rahmanie, where he was joined by different divisions of the army on the two following days. Here he learned, that the turkish fleet had landed about three thousand men, with some artillery; and on the 15th attacked the redoubt of Aboukeer, which they carried by assault. The fort of Aboukeer, the commanding officer of which was killed, surrendered the same day. On this the turks landed the rest of their cannon; began to fortify themselves in the peninsula of Aboukeer; supplied the castle with provision and ammunition; and embodied the arabs; in expectation of the arrival of Mourad bey with his troops. This however was prevented by Bonaparte, who had continued his march from Rahmanie, and taken a position that cut off their communication with the country. On the 25th he marched to attack them, and victory was long disputed with the utmost obstinacy on both sides. After performing prodigies of valour, the whole ottoman army was put to the rout, killed, or drowned. The carnage on this occasion was dreadful, and the plains to a consi-

derable extent are still white with the bones of those who fell. Mustapha bashaw, the commander in chief of the turks, was taken prisoner, with about two hundred of his men only: near two thousand were left dead on the field of battle: and all their tents, baggage, and twenty pieces of cannon, fell into the hands of the french. The next day the castle was summoned to surrender; and on it's refusal was bombarded. Battered by the artillery of the besiegers, it was soon reduced to a heap of stones; yet it held out till the 4th of august; when the garrison, having no longer any communication with the fleet, and dying of hunger and thirst, rushed out in crowds, and fell at the feet of the conquerors, imploring their mercy.

At this period Bonaparte was informed, through the communication of some english flags of truce, of the defeats the republican armies had experienced in Italy, and on the banks of the Rhine; and of the struggles that were taking place in France. Accordingly, as this recent defeat of the turkish expedition tended to confirm the security of his conquest, he resolved to repair to a more important field of action. Having ordered admiral Gantheaume to get ready for sea two frigates, an advice boat, and a tartane, without any intimation of his design; sealed notes were delivered to generals Lannes, Marmont, Murat, and Andreossi, and likewise to Monge and Berthollet, which they were to open at a certain hour, on the 22d of august, at a particular point on the seashore. These notes enjoined them to embark immediately, which they did without the least communication with any person. Berthier alone, who likewise accompanied Bonaparte to Europe,

was in the secret. They were detained by contrary winds till the 24th, when they quitted the road of Aboukeer. A sealed packet, to be opened twenty-four hours after the departure of the vessels, was delivered to general Kleber likewise. In this he was appointed to the chief command, and general Desaix to the command of Upper Egypt.

Previous to his departure Bonaparte had attempted to open a negotiation with the grand vizier, by which he expected at least to retard the proceedings of an enemy by no means alert, and this negotiation Kleber was directed to pursue. Harassed indeed as the french had been by repeated actions with a desperate though unskilful foe, forced marches in such a climate, and wants of every kind; while even their victories were continually diminishing their numbers, which they had no hope of reinforcing now their fleet was destroyed; it required no small degree of bravery in the troops, and no ordinary qualifications in the commander, to maintain their footing in the country. Mourad bey had again descended the Nile; been driven back by general Morand; overtaken, surprised in his camp, and defeated by him at Samanhout: when general Desaix, in order if possible to get rid of him entirely, went in pursuit of him with two flying columns, composed of infantry mounted on dromedaries, cavalry, and artillery; one commanded by himself, the other by adjutant general Boyer. On the 19th of october Boyer came up with him in the desert of Sediman. The mamalukes began the attack with great fury, but were defeated as usual; and the french pursued them on their dromedaries, but the deserts again secured their retreat.

In the mean time a second maritime expedition was preparing to attack Egypt. A body of troops from Constantinople, under the command of Seid Ali bey, on board a squadron conducted by sir W. Sidney Smith, appeared at the mouth of the Damietta branch of the Nile; while the army of the grand vizier was approaching by the way of the desert. On the eastern side of the entrance of the Nile was a ruined castle, insulated by the inundation of the river, though the passage was fordable. Of this the boats of the Tigre took possession, and displayed the ottoman flag, which was the signal for the turkish gunboats to advance, and the french to open their fire. A carronade mounted in a breach of the castle, and field pieces in the boats, continued to annoy the french, and prevent their working at an entrenchment they were throwing up to prevent the disembarkation, which was not effected till the 1st of november, though an interchange of shot had continued with little intermission the three preceding days. As soon as the first division of the turks had landed, the french advanced to charge them with the bayonet; but the turks, instead of waiting for the attack, rushed on, and in an instant completely routed the first line. Pursuing the fugitives with too much ardour, however, they were met by the reserve of the french in perfect order, and at the same time taken in flank by their cavalry. Thus they were put to the rout in their turn, rushed into the sea, and as many as could not be taken off by the boats were killed or made prisoners. The ships continued on the coast a few days longer, when they were obliged to quit it by the weather.

Still the impending storm grew blacker round Kleber's diminished forces. A detachment from the grand vizier's army, which was encamped at Gaza, had besieged and taken el Arisch; and in the grand vizier's camp before this place a convention was signed on the 24th of january, 1800, by which Kleber agreed to evacuate Egypt. Sir W. Sidney Smith had acceded to this convention, the terms of which indeed we may presume to have been framed under his direction; and certainly they were honourable to all parties, the french, yet unsubdued, being allowed to depart with their arms and baggage, while, as far as the interests of Great Britain were concerned, they rendered her secure from any danger, that the possession of Egypt by the french might threaten; a security doomed not to be purchased without the effusion of much blood.

Unfortunately lord Keith, who commanded in the Mediterranean, found it inconsistent with his orders, to suffer the french to depart, unless as prisoners of war. Indignant at this unexpected breach of the convention, Kleber notified to the grand vizier, to whom several places had already been delivered up, and who was now encamped at Matarea, his determination to recommence hostilities. On the 20th of march, at daybreak, he began to cannonade the advanced posts of the ottoman army, and at length the engagement became general. It ended in the total defeat of the turks, who lost about 8000 men killed and wounded, nineteen pieces of cannon, and part of their camp equipage.

While the french were pursuing the grand vizier, Nasouf bashaw and Mourad bey entered Cairo, where they massacred

whatever frenchmen they found, as well as numbers of the greeks and copts. As soon as Kleber returned, he invested the city, which was obstinately defended for some time; but at length he obtained possession of it, and punished in an exemplary manner the cruelties, that had been committed on the french and their partisans.

Thus a total change in the face of affairs was produced; and the french, instead of relinquishing Egypt, appeared to be confirmed in the possession of the country. Kleber, indeed, was assassinated at Cairo, on the 14th of june, by a fanatic, at the instigation of the aga of the janissaries, and with the privity of a few sheicks; but this event was attended with no farther consequence; and his successor, Menou, for several months experienced no molestation from without, no revolt or disturbance within.

This calm, however, was the precursor of their final ruin. On the 2d of march, 1801, the fleet under the command of lord Keith, having on board general Abercrombie with an army of 16000 men, arrived in the bay of Aboukeer; but the wind blew too hard to allow any attempt to land. On the 7th the gale had subsided, and at two o'clock in the morning of the 8th about a hundred and fifty boats were filled with near six thousand men. By break of day they had all arrived at the place of rendezvous, and having made all the necessary preparations and arrangements, at eight they pushed on toward the land. On the sand hills rising in gradation from the shore four thousand french were posted, their left flanked by the castle of Aboukeer, and their centre strengthened by a hill much higher than any of the rest.

As soon as the boats were within a certain distance, a brisk fire of shot and shells was opened upon them from fifteen pieces of artillery, which the french had placed between the hillocks, beside 2500 musketry. Under this the english advanced, landed, formed on the strand, and marched up the hill in the centre, with general Moore at their head. The french could not withstand their attack, but were driven from the summit, and down the back of the hill. In the mean time the right of the french army, rushing down to the beach, and even into the sea so as to kill some men in the boats, endeavoured in vain to oppose the disembarkation of the troops. The soldiers formed with steadiness as they jumped ashore, repelled the charge of a body of cavalry, and obliged the french to give ground; who now perceiving the defeat of their centre, and that they were consequently exposed to be taken in the rear, deferred no longer their retreat.

The french having retired toward Alexandria, with the loss of near 300 men, and eight pieces of cannon, the english took up their ground, and the whole army was on shore before night. On the 12th the british army moved forward, and came within sight of the french, who were formed on an advantageous ridge, extending from the sea to the canal of Alexandria. The next morning an attack was ordered, the army marching in two lines to turn the flank of the french, who soon came down from the heights to charge the leading brigades commanded by major generals Cradock and the earl of Cavan. They were soon repulsed however, and compelled to retreat to a hill close to the walls of Alexandria. In this position major general Moore with the re-

serve, and major general Hutchinson, were preparing to attack them on the right flank, while the rest of the troops assailed them on their left; but it was found on reconnoitering it, that, being commanded by a fortified hill within the walls, it could not be tenable, and accordingly the french were left in quiet possession of it: the british army encamping at a small distance between the lake Mareotis and the sea.

On the 20th general Menou arrived at Alexandria with the main body of his army, and the next morning, about an hour before daybreak, he commenced a false attack on the left of the british encampment, commanded by general Cradock, by whom the french were repulsed. In the mean time Menou directed his grand effort against the right, which Bonaparte's invincible legion, consisting of nine hundred men, volunteered to turn. They succeeded so far as to pass between the battery that defended this flank, and a large ruin near it. Three times they stormed the battery, and three times every one that entered it was stretched breathless on the ground. The reserve, consisting of the forty-second and twenty-eighth regiments, finding the enemy in their rear, had faced about, charged the french with the bayonet in their turn, and drove them backward step by step into the ruin. There two hundred and fifty called for quarter, and were made prisoners. The rest were no more. Their standard, on which were inscribed the many victories they had gained, was destined to grace the triumph of their conquerors, remaining no longer to those, by whom it had been so hardly earned in the plains of Europe. While this was doing, the main body of the french army in a heavy column broke through the british line into the

valley, and pressed along the valley toward the rear of the encampment. A body of cavalry accompanying them wheeled to the left, as soon as they had passed the rear of the line, and directed their charge to the rear of the reserve. A circumstance unexpected by them, and not prepared for the purpose, broke this charge completely. The british soldiers, before their tents were landed, had dug holes about three feet deep to sleep in, at the same time throwing up the sand round their borders. The ground over which the french cavalry charged being full of these holes, they were at once completely routed with considerable loss. As the french soldiers were intermingled with the british, sir Ralph Abercrombie had got among them, but was extricated by some of his own troops. A french dragoon at this moment rode up, and made a stroke at him, but not being quite near enough, only cut through his coat, waistcoat, and shirt, and just grazed the skin with the point of his sword. His horse wheeling about, he brought him to the charge again, and made a second attempt by a thrust. The sword however passed between the general's side and his right arm, which he immediately closed upon it; and the dragoon being at that instant shot dead, the sword remained in the general's possession. The conflict was maintained for some time after this with considerable obstinacy, but at length the french retreated. In this battle the english lost 250 killed, and 1200 wounded. Among the latter was sir Ralph Abercrombie, who would not quit the field till the action was over, though very early in the engagement he received such a severe wound in his thigh, that he survived only till the 28th. Major general Moore and brigadier general Oakes were wounded likewise, but not dan-



BRIDGE OVER THE CANAL OF MEXICO CITY

gerously. On the side of the french, general Roize, who commanded the cavalry, was killed in the field, and generals Lanusse and Bodet were mortally wounded. They lost about 3000, killed, wounded, or taken prisoners, with one stand of colours, and two field pieces.

In the middle of the succeeding month general Hutchinson, on whom the command had now devolved, sent a detachment of british and turkish troops, under the command of colonel Spencer, against Rosetta. The french were soon driven from the town, and took refuge on the other side of the Nile: but the castle held out from the 16th of april to the 19th, when the garrison capitulated.

On the 23d general Hutchinson removed his head quarters to Rosetta, whither he had detached about 4000 men; with whom, and an equal number of turks, he marched to Rahmanie, where he attacked the french on the 9th of may, and drove them into their intrenchments. In the night they retired toward Cairo, leaving a small garrison in the fort, which surrendered the next day. The combined forces then pursued their march for Cairo, having concerted their movements with the grand vizier, who was now encamped about ten miles north-east of that city. On their march they captured a convoy of 550 camels for Alexandria, escorted by 600 men, whom they made prisoners; and were joined by Osman bey, the successor of Mourad bey, with 1500 mamalukes.

In the mean time the french general, apprised of the approach of the british troops by those who had retreated from Rahmanie, marched to attack the grand vizier, in hopes of defeating him, and dispersing his forces, before the junction took place. Fortunately for the ottoman army, it's movements were directed by

the military skill of colonel Murray and several other british officers, so that the french received a complete check, and were obliged to retreat, leaving their enemies masters of the field of battle.

General Hutchinson having reached Geeza, where the french had fortified themselves to defend a bridge of communication over the Nile, proceeded to invest it, while the grand vizier moved forward, and posted himself nearly within cannon shot of Cairo. The french thus surrounded by a much superiour force; having to defend a place of great extent, weakly fortified, and the numerous inhabitants of which were by no means friendly to them; having recently experienced too, as well as on former occasions, that all their military science could not render them irresistible even to the ottomans, when under the direction of british officers; prudently offered to surrender Cairo, and evacuate the country, on the conditions formerly accepted by Kleber. No doubt the french might have held out for some time; no doubt they might have obliged the combined forces to purchase the possession of Cairo at a great expense of blood. But to what end this lavishing of human life? What would have availed the calamities, that must have been suffered during a protracted siege; and the misery that must have been entailed on thousands, in ruined health, and mutilated limbs? As a soldier, to whom all these are but the common course of things, perhaps general Belliard may be blamed for capitulating, before his men were reduced to a state, in which capitulation would be no longer a benefit, as a man he deserves praise.

The metropolis being thus surrendered by the french, general Hutchinson returned to Alexandria, before which the main body

of his army was encamped. On the 17th of august he commenced his operations for reducing this city, which Menou professed himself resolved to defend to the last. Major general Coote embarked with a strong corps on the inundation, landed to the westward of Alexandria with little opposition, and invested the strong castle of Marabout, at the entrance of the western harbour. On the east of the town two attacks were made, to get possession of some heights in front of the french intrenchments. That on the right was led by major general Craddock, that on the left by major general Moore. A part of the 30th regiment, under the command of colonel Spencer, took possession of a hill in front of the enemy's right. General Menou, who was in person in that part of the intrenched camp, ordered about 600 men to drive it from this post. These advanced in columns, with fixed bayonets, and without firing a shot; but colonel Spencer did not wait for their attack. When they were almost close to his little corps, which was not a third of their number; he gave orders to charge; and was obeyed with such spirit and alacrity, that the french were driven back to their intrenchments in the greatest confusion, with the loss of several killed, wounded, and taken prisoners.

On the night of the 18th major general Coote opened his batteries against the castle of Marabout, which was likewise attacked by some turkish sloops, and the boats of the fleet, under the direction of the hon. captain Cochrane. On the night of the 21st the fort capitulated; and the next morning major general Coote marched to attack a strong corps posted in his front, in order to cover the approach to Alexandria. His able and judicious conduct was attended with complete success; he drove the enemy

before him every where, though strongly posted, and in a country which opposed uncommon obstacles to the progress of troops. The french suffered extremely in the action, and retreated in much confusion, leaving their wounded and seven pieces of cannon behind them.

On the 24th batteries were opened against the redoubt de Bain; and in the night of the 25th major general Coote surprised the enemy's advanced posts, when seven officers and fifty men were taken prisoners. This service was gallantly performed by lieut. col. Smith, with the first battalion of the 20th regiment, and a small detachment of dragoons under the orders of lieut. Kelly. The french endeavoured to recover the ground from which they had been driven, but were repulsed with loss: and in the morning four batteries were opened on each side of the town against their intrenched camp, which soon silenced their fire, and induced them to withdraw many of their guns.

In the evening of the 27th general Menou, who had vaunted of the almost impregnable strength of his positions, and his determination to defend them, sent an aide-de-camp to the british commander, to request a truce for three days, in order to give time for preparing a capitulation; which, after some difficulties and delays, was signed on the 2d of September.

Thus the french were completely expelled from Egypt, and obliged to relinquish the fruits of a conquest, from which they had promised themselves the greatest advantages; being obliged in a six months campaign to abandon a country, of which they had maintained possession for three years, and in which they had hitherto seemed invincible.

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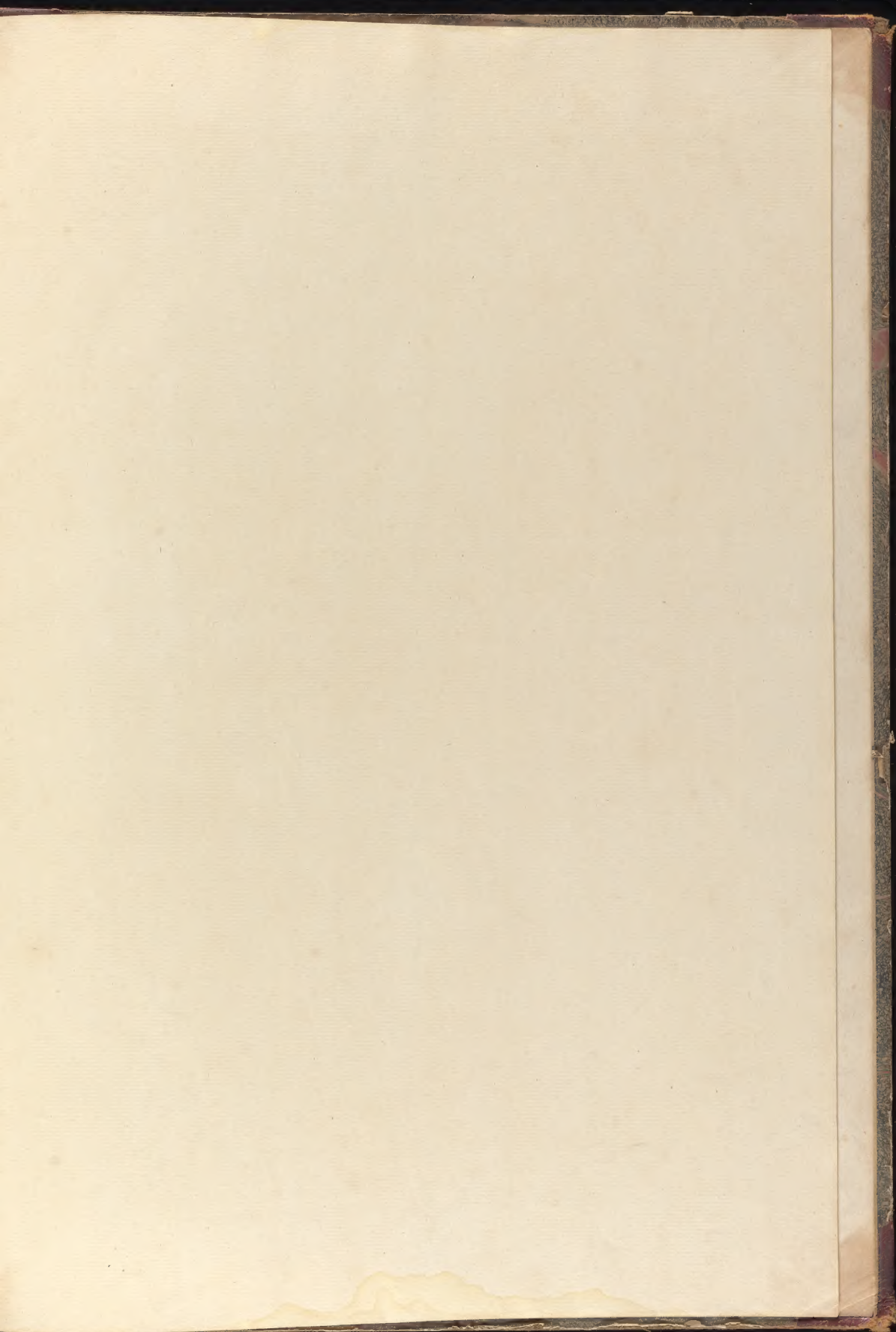
WITH DIRECTIONS TO THE BINDER FOR PLACING THEM.

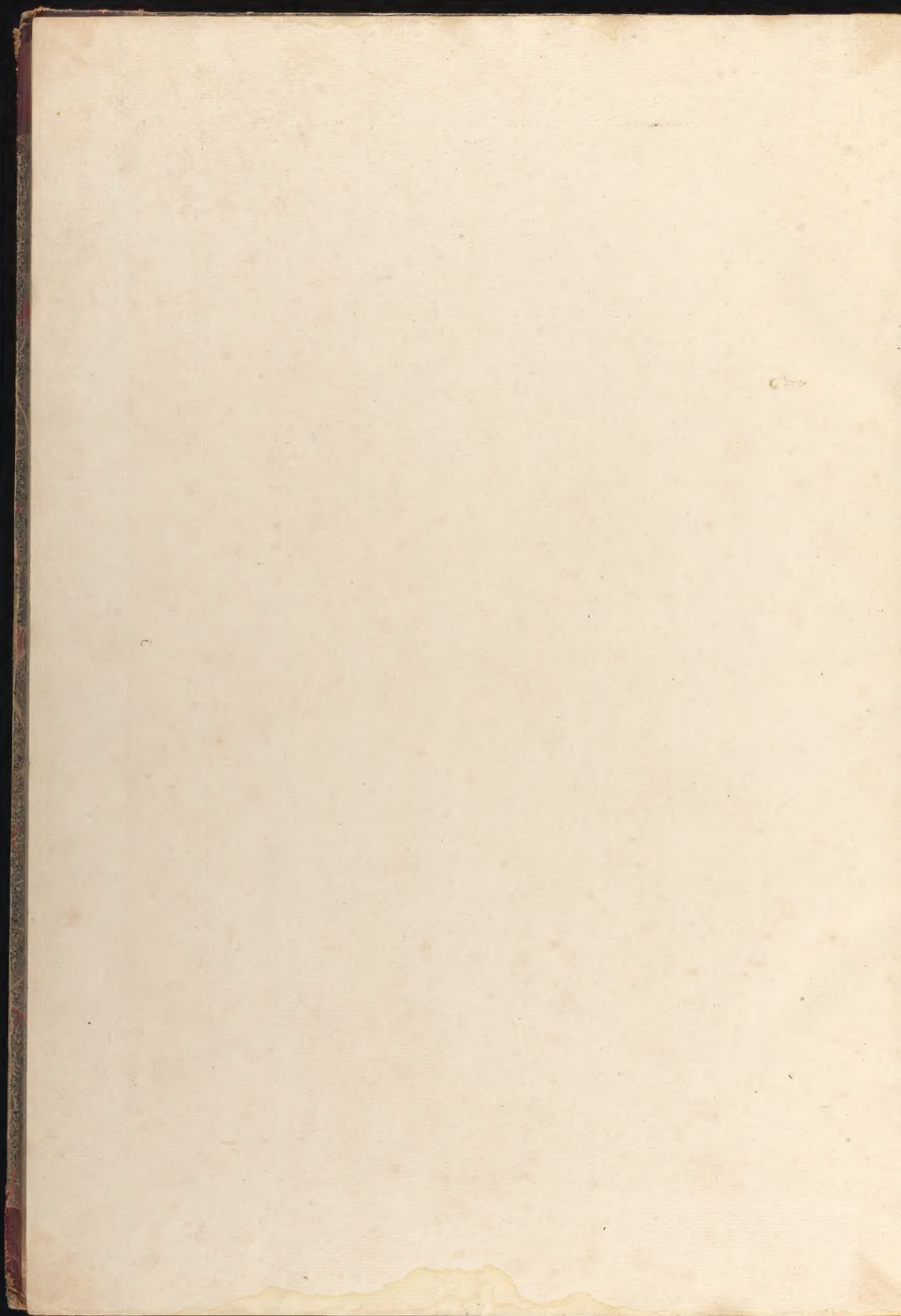
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